This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

M E N
OF THE
T I M E

6000262111

THE

MEN OF THE TIME

IN

1852.

THE

MEN OF THE TIME

IN

1852

OR

SKETCHES OF LIVING NOTABLES

AUTHORS	ENGINEERS	POETS
ARCHITECTS	JOURNALISTS	PREACHERS
ARTISTS	MONARCHS	SAVANS
COMPOSERS	MINISTERS	STATESMEN
CAPITALISTS	NOVELISTS	TRAVELLERS
DEMAGOGUES	PHILANTHROPISTS	VOYAGERS
DRAMATISTS	POLITICIANS	WARRIORS

LONDON
DAVID BOGUE FLEET STREET
M.DCCC LII.

210. c. 40

LONDON
Printed by G. BARCLAY, Castle St. Leicester Sq.

THE following pages are offered to the public in the full belief that they may fill a place hitherto unoccupied amongst annual publications.

We have Peerages to tell us all about the aristocracy of birth, but none devoted to the aristocracy of talent. We have Red Books, chronicling the names of all official persons, from Her Majesty's Ministers to the junior Somerset House clerks; Army Lists, that include the name of every holder of a military commission; Navy Lists, punctually recording who is afloat and who ashore of the thousands that officer our ships; Parliamentary Guides, profuse in their details about M.P.'s and their politics; Clergy Lists, showing the cure and the stipend of the large class charged with the spiritual duties of our State Church; Lists of various Ministers of various Dissenting Congregations; Medical volumes, showing who may act legally as Surgeons, Physicians, and Apothecaries; and last, — and certainly not least — London Directories, giving Heaven knows how many pounds weight of names and addresses of the men who carry on the

multifarious commercial labours of this great metropolis. The courtier, the placeman, the soldier, the sailor, the priest, the physician, have each their special muster-roll, for ostentation or for reference. Hitherto one thing might be looked for in vain — a book giving, in a compact form, and arranged for reference as well as general reading, a sketch of that body who may be emphatically called The Men of their Time — the class who in their several walks of life tread in advance of the multitude — lead the way — and by their example, their labours, their writings, and their speeches, become the leaders of the opinions, and the pioneers of the action, of The Age We Live In. This section of the community,—though, in truth, a class who influence all the rest,—are scattered through various positions, not always the most showy or pretentious; and hence often finding no place in the regards of the editor of Court Calendar or City Directory. Some of them may, it is true, be found named in one or other of such publications; but where they are so included, it arises not from the fact of their belonging to the class of Nature's Notables, but because they may happen to be also ministers, members of parliament, men of fortune, or men of

business. In such secondary characters they find just the bald mention vouchsafed to the class with whom they are so far identified. In the book now before the reader, an attempt is made to bring together in one muster-roll the people who take the lead in doing the Work of the World, in literature, in politics, in art, in science,—who are influential in their generation either in thought or in action.

In the notices of living Kings will be found some particulars of the policy that has been adopted by each court. This, it is hoped, will be found useful for reference by those who seek to unravel the tangled thread of "foreign intelligence" found in the newspapers. About such names, for instance, as Metternich, Kossuth, Mazzini, and Cavaignac, the events have been sketched in which each was important. In this way into the volume has been weaved the more important *events*, as associated with the most important *names*, of our time; and this, it is hoped, has been done in a way likely to prove interesting for perusal, whilst useful for reference.

In such a work it would have been absurd to limit the scope of the volume to the range of our own country. Steam and the spread of intelligence have extended the influence of a single powerful mind

far beyond the bounds of the land which gave it birth. In this attempt, therefore, to sketch the Men of their Time, the limits of nationality have been put aside, and not only Englishmen, but Frenchmen, Americans, Germans, Italians, Spaniards, Swedes, and Russians, have been mentioned whenever their talents or their reputation seemed to demand such notice.

As it is intended to publish a new Edition annually,—with such changes as the course of events may render requisite,—it is hoped that those who may feel an interest in the subject of the work will assist in rendering it more complete by sending corrections and additions for future volumes. It should be added, that proof sheets of the biographic sketches in the ensuing pages have been sent to nearly all the individuals referred to—thus affording opportunities for the correction of dates and other matters of fact. In this way much valuable information has been obtained. For the opinions expressed the Editor is, of course, alone responsible.

Communications addressed to the Editor, care of Mr. Bogue, Fleet Street, London, will be gladly received.

MEN OF THE TIME

IN 1852.

ABD-EL-KADER is entitled to recognition as one of the men of the time, in consequence of the long and gallant struggle he maintained against the whole power of France in Africa. During fifteen years—from 1832 to 1847—he kept the French in more or less constant warfare; at times successful, and then apparently beaten, yet ever starting up again when least expected; harassing the troops on the Algerian frontier, and compelling the commander of the Gallic colony to call out large forces, and to continue a long, galling, unsatisfactory, and often fruitless campaign, with an enemy that, like a will-o'-the-wisp, flitted about apparently only to lead all pursuers into ambushes and dangers on the hot sands, and in the sickly deserts of Africa. So often was he thought to be crushed, and so often declared to be slain or captured, that the frequency and the constant falsehood of the rumours on the subject passed into a common jest in Paris. At last, indeed, people scarcely believed in the reality of Abd-el-Kader at all: his final downfall was only secured by the assistance of the Emperor of Morocco. With the view of obtaining redress of grievances, the French had sent a fleet to attack that potentate's dominions, and the operations that ensued led to a treaty between France and Morocco, in which the latter bound himself to restrain Abd-el-Kader from any aggression on the French. Accordingly, the emperor sent an army, under Muley Abderrhaman and another of his sons, to hem in Abd-el-Kader, which they succeeded *in doing; and* soon afterwards the Parisian off-

cial paper, the "Moniteur," published despatches from the Duc d'Aumale, at that time Governor-general of Algeria, and from General Lamoricière, giving details of the surrender of Abd-el-Kader to the French, and of the events which immediately preceded it. "The illustrious emir was overpowered, not beaten," said the Paris letter of "The Times;" "his last was, perhaps, the most brilliant of all his achievements. With a handful of faithful and devoted adherents, he in the night of the 11th and 12th December, 1847, attacked the Moorish camps, and routed the immense army they contained; but, overpowered by numbers, and hemmed in on all sides by hourly increasing masses of Moors, he was gradually pushed back on the frontier of Algeria. The weather had been frightful, which impeded military operations. On December 21st the fords of the Moulouia became practicable, and the baggage and the families of his brave companions proceeded towards the plain of Triffa, the resolve of Abd-el-Kader having been to see them in safety in the French territory, and then cut through the Moors, with such of his adherents as should dare to follow him." "He threw himself into the country of the Beni-Snassur," says the Duc d'Aumale, "and sought to again take the road to the south, which the Emperor of Morocco had left free; but, surrounded on that side by our cavalry, he trusted to the generosity of France, and surrendered, on condition of being sent to St. Jean d'Acre or Alexandria." The emir arrived soon afterwards in a French steamer at Toulon. The government of Louis Philippe hesitated to carry into effect the agreement of General Lamoricière, ratified by the Duc d'Aumale; and finally determined to break faith with the emir, who to this hour has been held captive in France.

ABDU-L-MEDJID, Sultan of Turkey, was born on the 20th of April, 1823, and was but sixteen years of age when called to succeed his father, whose death was announced on the 1st of July, 1839, though it is supposed that it occurred some days before. The ceremony of installation was performed on the 11th, when he was girded with the sword of Osman, with all the ancient formalities. Abdu-l-Medjid has conducted the administration of Turkey upon the policy of his eminent father. In his reign the army has *been entirely reorganised* upon the best European model,

taxes have been equalised, and the general prosperity of the country so much advanced, that its population is annually increased by immigrations of the subjects of neighbouring states, drawn to Turkey by the comforts of an enlightened government. In carrying out the new system—Tanzimat as it is called—the present sultan has encountered formidable obstacles; but hitherto, with the occasional aid of France and England, he has succeeded in overcoming them all.

A'BECKETT, GILBERT ABBOT, a popular writer, who, after many years' service with the pen, has been fortunate enough to obtain that which governments do not often bestow on public writers—an honourable and profitable post in the public service. Mr. A'Beckett, in his early literary days, was the chief writer of a comic paper called "Figaro in London," the forerunner of an existing satirical publication of much wider celebrity. But Mr. A'Beckett has always been something more than a wit and punster. He was called to the Bar by the Honourable Society of Gray's Inn, January 27, 1841; but, though the son of an attorney, briefs were not over-abundant, and he employed a portion of his leisure in writing political and other "leaders" for the daily press. He has written both for "The Times" and the "Daily News." Having been employed for a while as an Assistant-Commissioner under the Poor-Law Board, he produced a Report which showed him to be possessed of talent for investigation, and general aptitude for official duty. This,—and it is said, the friendship of that kindly politician, the late Charles Buller,—secured for Mr. A'Beckett an appointment as one of the metropolitan police magistrates. He now fulfils such duties as Fielding once performed; and, like the great novelist, employs the leisure afforded by the not-too-heavy duties of his post, in the exercise of his literary abilities. He is understood still to be a contributor to "Punch," and, as the public well know, indulges them with comic versions of histories and treatises in which no fun was ever before believed to reside. He is the author, amongst other works, of the "Comic History of England," "Comic Blackstone," and "Comic History of Rome."

ABERDEEN, GEORGE GORDON, EARL OF, a Conservative *statesman*, descended of an ancient Scottish house,

was born 1784, and educated at St. John's, Cambridge, where he took the degree of M.A. in 1804. In that year, having resided some time in Greece, he founded the Athenian Society, of which no one might be a member who had not visited Athens. In 1813 he was sent to Vienna as ambassador of England, and concluded at Toplitz, Oct. 3, 1813, the preliminary negotiations by which Austria was detached from the French alliance and united with England against Napoleon. He subsequently brought about the alliance of Murat, king of Naples, with Austria; but in 1815 exerted himself vainly to prevent the rupture which took place between the courts of Naples and Vienna, and resulted in the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of the former state. Elected in 1814 a Scottish representative peer, he uniformly approved himself a decided Tory. In 1828 he became Minister of Foreign Affairs under Wellington. In this position he departed widely from the system of Canning, inasmuch as he abetted the policy of Austria, conducted then by Metternich, his intimate friend. Thus he disapproved of the battle of Navarino, although he had signed with France and Russia the first protocol in favour of Greece. Upon the dissolution of the Wellington administration consequent upon the Reform agitation, he went into opposition Jan. 16, 1830. He henceforward showed himself more than ever the irreconcileable enemy of every liberal proposition, and became the supporter of the pretensions of Dom Miguel,—whom, while in power, he had ridiculed,—and of Don Carlos, whom he aided both in and out of Parliament. The most important act of his administration had been the recognition of Louis Philippe, saluted King of the French, after the memorable days of July. In the ministry formed by Peel and Wellington, which endured only for the vacation of 1834–1835, Aberdeen held the appointment of Colonial Secretary. When Peel took office in 1841, Aberdeen received again the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, and appeared to have learnt that his Tory tendencies were to be repressed rather than indulged. He supported Peel in repealing the Corn-laws, and retired with him on the ministerial changes which succeeded the enactment of that policy. He has since occasionally spoken against the Government, particularly in the affairs of Greece. During the cabinet *crisis of 1851 he* was sent for by the Queen, with a view to

undertaking the government with Sir James Graham, but declined that responsibility. He had previously refused to co-operate with Lord Stanley.

ACHILLI, GIOVANNI GIACINTO, an Italian Church Reformer, whose name has been prominently before the public as that of a talented and active opponent of Popery. Born of popish parents, he was educated for the priesthood. He put on the Dominican habit, and was ordained priest at Lucca in 1825. Having finished his studies in the Convent of the Minerva, at Rome, he was sent as *lettore*, or lecturer, to the Convent of Gradi, belonging to the same order, and was afterwards appointed professor in the Ecclesiastical Seminary of that town. In 1833 he was offered successively the professorships at the Minerva, at the Sapienza, and at Macerta. Upon this he resigned his appointment: but, declining the professorships, he became visitor of the convents of the Dominicans, in the Roman States and in Tuscany. At thirty years of age he received, on account of his attainments, the dignity of a maestro, generally reserved as the ornament of maturer years. At that time he was frequently requested to officiate as preacher, or confessor, by eminent dignitaries of the Church; but states, in his "Dealings with the Inquisition," that he had a great inward conflict touching the doctrines and practices of Rome. These at length made his position so painful, that he resolved to withdraw to Naples, and there reflect upon the course which he should adopt. Having preached the Lent sermons for 1834 at Monte Fiascone, he left Rome in 1835, and took up his residence at Capua, where he was made prior of the monastery of Peter the Martyr. In 1839 he laid down the Dominican habit, with the permission of the Pope, and remained in Naples, a simple priest, teaching various sciences and preaching. In 1841 he came to Rome on private business, and was seized by the Inquisition: he remained many months in its dungeons, and when he was released, in 1842, received, in return for a complete renunciation of all his offices, honours, employments, and privileges, a decree of dismissal from his ecclesiastical ministry. Being now at liberty, he left Italy in October 1842, and entered the English dominions, where he long remained, teaching *the sciences and* literature. From Corfu, whither

he first arrived, he published his celebrated letter to Gregory XVI. From Corfu he proceeded to Malta, and received the appointment of Professor of Divinity in the Protestant Italian College. In 1848 he visited England. In January 1849, he proceeded to Rome; and on the 24th of June of that year he was married to the youngest daughter of Captain Hely, according to the rites of the reformed Italian Church. Five days afterwards he was seized in his own house by French soldiers, acting under the orders of the Inquisition, and carried to St. Angelo. Here he was placed in a cell just vacated by a number of thieves, and in which the only furniture was a filthy mattress, and the only window a hole in the wall. He was refused communication with his friends, and everything not necessary to maintain existence. Great efforts were at this time made by friends in England, and especially by the members of the Evangelical Alliance, to procure his liberation; and the French and Papal governments were waited upon by a deputation which journeyed expressly from this country. But all appeared in vain. The officers of the Inquisition were sent to harass him in his cell, and he was threatened with yet severer rigours. One evening, however, two chasseurs arrived at the castle, to take Achilli to the French council of war, "to give evidence upon the trial of Signor Cernuschi." As he knew nothing of that gentleman, nor the other of him, he was at first greatly in doubt what all this could mean. He accompanied the two soldiers, and passed through the streets of Rome in an open carriage. On arriving at the court-house he received the most courteous treatment from the captain of the guard, who, in a few words, placed him completely at his ease. He walked into an antechamber, where several military uniforms and accoutrements were lying ready. One of these he put on, the door stood open for him, and no one opposed his departure. He walked unrecognised down the several piazzas till he came to the Corso, where money, a passport, a carriage and post-horses, were in waiting for him, and in a few minutes he was beyond the walls of Rome. He arrived at Civita Vecchia at two in the morning, and was received on board a French steamer of war, by which he proceeded to Toulon, and thence to Paris. On arriving subsequently in England he was heartily welcomed at several public meetings, held to commemorate his deliverance.

ADAMS, J. C., Astronomer, discoverer of the planet Neptune, and one of the most esteemed scholars in the University of Cambridge. Mr. Adams is a genius in his particular walk of science, and his present eminent position is rendered more remarkable by the fact that he has achieved his own elevation by his own exertions. A journal published in the quarter of England where Mr. Adams was born thus freely sketches his career:—"The traveller who has come into Cornwall by the north road must remember a long moorland tract between Launceston and Bodmin. If his journey was performed on the roof of a coach, against a sleety, biting south-wester, his memory will not need any refresher. The recollections of such an excursion are not to be effaced, even by the consolations of the Jamaica Inn. A more desolate spot can scarcely be found. Yet Nature sometimes grows men where she grows nothing else; and on this bleak moor she has produced, at least, one such man as, with all her tropical magnificence, she never produced within ten degrees of the equator. A few years ago, a small farmer, named Adams, resident on the moor, had a boy, who, if we are correctly informed, disappointed his father's hopes of making a good agriculturist of him. His fits of abstraction and dreamy revery were held to be very unpropitious. He somehow got a taste for mathematics, and this passion so grew upon him that he was at length abandoned to its impulses, and allowed to take his own way, in despair of a better. It was clear that *he* would never pick up prizes at a ploughing-match or a cattle-show; that the lord of the manor or squire of the parish would never have to stand up and make a solemn oration over him, showing him to wondering spectators as the man who had improved the breed of rams, or fattened bullocks to a distressing obesity. Yet as the path to such fame was closed, there were still some small honours awaiting him. After a school training, he entered at St. John's College, Cambridge, where at the end of his undergraduateship he became senior wrangler. He is now one of the mathematical tutors of that college, and the discoverer of the planet Neptune." The group of known planets now encircle the sun in the following order:—Mercury, Venus, Mars, Flora, Iris, Vesta, Hebe, Astræa, Juno, Ceres, Pallas, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune. Mr. Adams has still *work left for him.* "There is reason to believe,"

says a recent writer, "that other planets may be found beyond Neptune, and that more fragments may be discovered between Mars and Jupiter; since it may be presumed that the eight we know of are the *débris* of a large one, the more so as it is, probably, not the only instance. The myriads of meteors that the earth annually meets with on the 12th of August and the 14th of November, are, no doubt, minute planetary bodies revolving round the sun, which on entering the atmosphere take fire by its sudden and violent compression." Greenwich Observatory does very little in the way of discovery: to Cambridge we may now look with more confidence.

AGASSIZ, LOUIS, a distinguished Natural Philosopher, was born in 1807, at Orbe, in Waatlande, where his father was a pastor. In 1818 he entered the Gymnasium of Biel, and in 1822 he was removed to the Academy of Lausanne, as a reward for his proficiency in science. He subsequently studied medicine and the experimental sciences at Zürich, Heidelberg, and Munich, at which last university he took the degree of M.D. From his earliest youth he evinced a peculiar inclination and aptitude for the cultivation of natural philosophy. In Heidelberg and Munich he occupied himself more especially with comparative anatomy. In 1826, being entrusted by Martius with the publication of an account of the one hundred and sixteen species of fishes collected by Spix in Brazil, he gave to the world that new classification of fishes to which he has subsequently remained steadfast. In 1839 he published his "Natural History of the Freshwater Fish of Europe," a subject which he treated with monographic completeness. While preparing this work he had published his "Researches on Fossil Fishes," and his "Descriptions of Echinodermes." The work, however, which contributed most liberally to his European reputation, was his "Studies of Glaciers," in which he advanced a theory tending in great part to remodel the prevalent systems of geology. His views upon the changes in the earth's surface, ascribable to the agency of these enormous rivers of ice, have not been universally admitted, but no geological work has been published since his "Etudes," in which his theory has not been treated with marked respect. Mr. Agassiz has *for some years resided* in the United States, and has recently

been appointed to a professorship of Comparative Anatomy in the university of Charleston.

AINSWORTH, W. HARRISON, Novelist. Born in 1805, and originally intended for the profession of the law, he, in 1826, when only twenty-one years old, changed the current of his fate by publishing a novel, entitled "John Cheverton," which was read and commended by Sir Walter Scott. Having thus become an author, and having taken as a wife the daughter of a publisher, he thought it would be well to sell his own productions without the intervention of another between himself and the public, and, accordingly, he turned publisher. Eight years after the appearance of his first book he issued a second, called "Rookwood," which was at once successful, and gained for its author the credit of being a very clever writer, who had founded a new school of fiction, of which malefactors were to be the heroes, and in which, as a climax, the gallows and Tyburn were to supply the place of the old-fashioned marriage that usually wound up old-fashioned novels. Turpin the highwayman was painted in glowing colours, and the apocryphal story of the highwayman's ride from London to York at one heat on one horse became, in the pages of Mr. Ainsworth's novel, a glowing literary reality. The cleverness and vitality of the narrative attracted a large number of readers to this Romance of Felony, and the stage reproduced the hash of false sentiment and doubtful morality which the press had given forth, while the more thoughtful portion of book readers began to lament deeply that the talents of a writer like Mr. Ainsworth should have been employed on such subjects. Another novel, entitled "Crichton," next appeared, followed by another infinitely more mischievous than "Rookwood." It raised in the hero the house-breaker Sheppard, as a sort of companion atrocity to the romantic highwayman Turpin. Jack Sheppard, having robbed his way through three clever volumes and after having had his criminalities illustrated by George Cruikshank, is hanged at Tyburn before a admiring crowd. This book must have been its author's purse, whatever it may have been tion; but since its publication, Mr. Ainsworth have been tempted to repeat his glorification fancy-*paintings of thief-life*. With better

more wholesome taste, he has carried his admitted talents to fields equally rich in dramatic effects and comparatively free from objection; and his later works of fiction, "The Tower of London," "Old St. Paul's," "Windsor Castle," and "St. James's Palace," have shown how graphically he can weave around a thread of romance a series of historical scenes and characters, full of value and of absorbing interest. He lives in a pleasant cottage in the neighbourhood of Kilburn, and varies his literary labours by editing the Magazine which bears his name; as well as the "New Monthly," the proprietorship of which was ceded to him some years ago by Mr. Colburn.

ALBERT, PRINCE CONSORT, FRANZ-AUGUST-KARL-EMANUEL, AND DUKE OF SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA, is the second son of Ernst Anton Karl Ludwig, duke of Saxe-Coburg, whose ancestors were Margraves of Meissen in the twelfth century and Electors of the Empire from 1425 to 1547, when the electoral dignity passed over to the collateral line of this house, whose present head is the King of Saxony. Prince Albert was born August 26, 1819, at the castle of Rosenau. After receiving a thorough education at the hands of private tutors, he entered the University of Bonn on the 3d of May, 1837, as a student of jurisprudence. A small house, of most simple aspect, standing behind some young trees, on one side of the cathedral at Bonn, is shown as the residence of his Royal Highness during his university course. Here, surrounded on every side by the memorials of ancient Christendom, and in view of the historical Rhine, the prince is said to have devoted himself to the studies of the place with an ardour which is spoken of with pride by the teachers of the university. It was his custom, they say, to rise not later than six every morning, and to pursue his studies until seven in the evening, allowing himself an interval of three hours for dinner and recreation. The labours of the day finished, he would pay visits to families of his acquaintance, or entertain students of worth at his own table. Among the chief professors of Bonn at this time were Dr. Walter, a jurist celebrated for his thorough mastery of the civil and Germanic law; and Dr. Loebell, remarkable for his skill in *the treatment of the* history of Europe. Besides these were

Professors Bocking and Perthes, colleagues of Dr. Walter. The prince was in the habit of attending their public lectures, and afterwards receiving their more special assistance at his own residence. Having spent three academical seasons at Bonn, Prince Albert took his leave of the university at the close of the summer half-year of 1838. In July of the same year, the prince, with his father and brother, visited England to attend the coronation of her Majesty, and at Michaelmas returned to Cobourg, Prince Albert having for the first time made the acquaintance of her Majesty. After his departure, rumour was busy in England pointing out Prince Albert as her Majesty's future consort; and although the report was contradicted by the ministerial newspapers, the belief was strengthened by a journey to England made about this time by Leopold, king of the Belgians, and the subsequent arrival in this country of the young prince himself during the autumn of 1839. Immediately after the departure of Prince Albert, the Queen caused all the members of the Privy Council to be summoned, to meet at Buckingham Palace on November 23, and then and there announced to her council her royal intention to form a matrimonial alliance with the Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. On the announcement to the House of Lords of her Majesty's intention, the Duke of Cambridge spoke from his personal knowledge of Prince Albert, and confidently predicted his future high popularity. The Duke of Wellington expressed his surprise that the House had not been informed that the Prince was a Protestant, and received the most satisfactory assurances on that head from the ministry. He is a great admirer of the arts, is a ready draughtsman, has skill in music, and has written verses. We may give an example of his quality as a poet, and it will at once be seen that the sentiment contained in the verses is one highly creditable to a prince; and one, too, which receives illustration in the fact that the model houses for the use of labourers, built for inspection opposite the Glass Palace, were raised at the expense of Prince Albert.

"THE TOY OF THE GIANT'S CHILD.

Written in German by H. R. H. PRINCE ALBERT, *and Translated by the late* G. F. RICHARDSON, *Geologist of the British Museum.*

"It is the lofty Inselberg—a mountain high and strong—
Where once a noble castle stood—the giants held it long;

Its very ruins now are lost, its site is waste and lone,
And if he looks for giants there, they are all dead and gone.

The giant's daughter once came forth, the castle gate before,
And played with all a child's delight before her father's door;
Then sauntering down the precipice, the girl would gladly go
To see, perchance, how matters went in the little world below.

With few and hasty steps she passed the mountain and the wood,
At length approaching near the place where dwelt mankind, she stood;
And many a town and village fair, and many a field so green,
Before her wondering eyes appeared, a strange and curious scene.

And as she gazed, in wonder lost, on all the scenes around,
She saw a peasant at her feet a-tilling of the ground;
The little creature crawled about so slowly here and there,
And, lighted by the morning sun, his plough shone out so fair.

'Oh, pretty plaything!' cries the child, 'I'll take thee home with me.'
Then with her infant hands she spread her kerchief on her knee,
And cradling man, and horse, and plough, so gently on her arm,
She bore them home quite cautiously, afraid to do them harm.

She hastes with joyous steps and glad (we know what children are),
And spying soon her father out, she shouted from afar—
'Oh, father! dearest father! what a plaything I have found!
I never saw so fair a one upon our mountain ground!'

Her father sat at table then, and drank his wine so mild,
And smiling with a parent's smile, he asked the happy child—
'What struggling creature hast thou brought so carefully to me?
Thou leap'st for very joy, my girl! come, open, let us see!'

She oped her kerchief cautiously and gladly, you may deem,
And showed her eager sire the plough, the peasant, and his team;
And when she'd placed before his sight the new-found pretty toy,
She clasped her hands, and screamed aloud, and cried for very joy.

But her father looked quite seriously, and shaking slow his head,
'What hast thou brought me here, my girl?—this is no toy,' he said.
'Go, take it to the vale again, and put it down below:
The peasant is no plaything, child! how could'st thou think him so?

So go, without a sigh or sob, and do my will,' he said:
'For know, without the peasant, girl, we none of us had bread;
'Tis from the peasant's hardy stock the race of giants are—
The peasant is no plaything, child—no, God forbid he were!'"

Prince Albert's popularity in England has been greatly increased by his patronage of the Great Exhibition of 1851, in Hyde Park; and to him is due the great credit of having suggested that that noble display of human skill should not, as at first intended, be merely an exposition of British productions, *but should* be an Exhibition of the Industry of *All*

Nations. This notice would be incomplete without a list of the dignities enjoyed by the Prince. He was naturalised on his marriage to her Majesty, Feb. 10, 1840, by Act of Parliament, and received a grant of 30,000*l.* a-year; received the title of Royal Highness by patent; the right to quarter the royal arms of England; and precedence by royal warrant next to the Queen. He is a member of the Privy Council; Chief Steward of the Duchy of Cornwall, and Lord Warden of the Stannaries; Governor and Constable of Windsor Castle; Grand Ranger of Windsor, St. James's, and Hyde Parks; is a Field Marshal and Colonel of the Scots Fusilier Guards (formerly Colonel of the 11th Hussars, hence called "Prince Albert's Own"); is Captain-General and Colonel of the City of London Artillery Company; is a Knight of the Garter, the Thistle, and of St. Patrick; is also G.C.B. G.C.M.G.; Acting Grand Master of the Order of the Bath, and Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece. His scholastic dignities in England are Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, LL.D., D.C.L., and Ph. D. Lastly, he is an Elder Brother of the Trinity House.

ALVENSLEBEN, COUNT ALBERT, a Prussian Diplomatist and Minister of State, eldest son of John Augustus Ernest, count Alvensleben, was born at Halberstadt, March 23, 1794. He studied at Berlin, and left college in 1811 to enter the Prussian cavalry guard as a volunteer. He speedily became an officer, and remained in the military service until the second peace of Paris. He afterwards applied himself to the study of the law, and in 1817 was made an assessor in the Kammergericht at Berlin. He rapidly rose in this new sphere, until the death of his father in 1827 called him to direct the affairs of his house. For a time he now lived in the retirement of a country gentleman, but the versatility of his talents and his business aptitude drew upon him the general attention, and in 1834 he was named Prussia's second delegate to the conference of German ministers about to be held at Vienna. He acquitted himself in the deliberations of that council to the satisfaction of his master, and at the close of the year was entrusted with the folio of the Finance ministry. In 1837 he became also Minister of Commerce and Public Works. In this *new capacity he distinguished* himself by his zeal in

promoting the German Customs Union, and his strenuous, but fruitless opposition to the Russian prohibitory policy, as practised on the eastern frontiers of Prussia. In 1842 he resigned the Finance ministry, but was still an adviser of the crown. More recently he came before the world for a brief period as Prussian plenipotentiary at the Dresden conferences, where his spirited and patriotic deportment promised to retrieve the honours of the Prussian diplomacy; but not finding proper support at Berlin, he was unable to offer more than a passive resistance to the schemes of Austria. Count Alvensleben does not occupy any important public post at this moment.

ANDERSEN, HANS CHRISTIAN, a popular Danish novelist, was born at Odense, April 2, 1805, in which town his father was a shoemaker. His parents were too poor to procure for him any other education than such as was to be obtained at a charity school in the place, and even from this he was taken at about nine years of age, when he could but just read. About this time the widow of a clergyman took him into her house to read aloud to herself and a relative, and thus he first became acquainted with literature. Three years afterwards he was sent to a manufactory near to earn a trifle in aid of his mother; his father being now dead. During the time that he remained here he employed all his leisure in reading plays, and so conceived a strong inclination for a player's life. Being in possession of a sum of thirty shillings, and receiving much encouragement from a "wise woman" who had been consulted on the subject, he set out on Sept. 1819, without introduction or friends, to obtain employment on the Copenhagen stage. His rude appearance and want of education ensured the rejection of his application at the theatre of the capital; and being reduced to extremity, he was glad to obtain employment with a joiner. But work of this kind also failed him; and he was one day pacing the streets with a heavy heart, when he remembered that nobody had yet heard his fine voice. By what seemed a happy accident, he found means to sing in presence of Professor Siboni, who was so pleased with his singing and modest demeanour, that he undertook to cultivate Andersen's voice, and procure his *début* at the Theatre *Royal*. He spent a year and a half in elementary in-

struction, but then lost his voice, and the best counsel Siboni could give him was to learn some handicraft trade. He was now again reduced to great straits, and almost to want. He wrote several tragedies, but with no other fruit than some very feeble praise. At length his efforts fell under the eye of Counsellor Collin, a man of powerful interest, who, perceiving the genius that was struggling against the barriers of ignorance, went to the king, and obtained an order for Andersen's admission, without cost, to one of the government gymnasia. From this school he went to college, and became soon very favourably known by true poetical works. Ingemann, Oehlenschläger, and others, then obtained for him a royal stipend to enable him to travel, and he visited Germany, France, Switzerland, and Italy. Under the inspiration of this last beautiful country he wrote his "Improvisatore;" his romance called "O. T." followed, and was a picture of the secluded life of the sober north. In "Only a Fiddler," he has given a picture of his own early struggles. In 1844 Andersen visited the court of Denmark by special invitation, and in the following year received a royal annuity, which permits him to follow freely the impulses of his genius. Since then he has travelled much, and in 1847 visited this country. Besides the works already mentioned, he has written "Fairy Tales," "Picture-book without Pictures," "Travels in the Hartz Mountains," "A Poet's Bazaar," "Ahasuerus," "New Fairy Tales," "The Two Barometers," and several volumes of poems and dramas. His writings have been translated into German, and thence into English, Dutch, and even Russian: the Leipsic edition is in thirty-five volumes.

ANDERSON, ARTHUR, a man of business, capitalist, and member of Parliament, was born 1792, and has been all his life distinguished for his active exertions in undertakings calculated to promote the public convenience, as well as private emolument. Mr. Anderson is a native of Shetland, and his earliest public exertions were directed to improve the fisheries and postal communications of that and the neighbouring isles. Subsequently he became a managing director of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, which has at the present time, under his orders, the largest fleet which any corporation not exercising sovereign

prerogatives has ever owned. Mr. Anderson represents the constituency of Orkney and Shetland in Parliament, and votes with the Liberal party. During the Corn-law agitation he was an active member of the League, and aided its cause with his pen as well as by his personal influence.

ANGLESEY, HENRY WILLIAM PAGET, MARQUIS OF, a celebrated cavalry officer, born May 17, 1768, eldest son of the late Earl of Uxbridge. Having been educated at Westminster School and at Christ Church, Oxford, in 1793 he was appointed to the command of a regiment which he had raised at his own expense among his father's tenantry in Staffordshire, and in the following year served in Flanders under the Duke of York, and again in the expedition to Holland in 1799. Near the close of 1808, being then a major-general, he joined Sir John Moore in the Peninsula, and shortly after, at the head of only four hundred men, routed a detachment of the French army nine hundred strong, taking two hundred prisoners. At Mayaga he again defeated the enemy with an inferior force, and at Benveneto repulsed the French advanced guard, took General Lefebre, and so successfully covered the defeat of the English that they were not again molested until their arrival at Corunna. At the battle fought near that place, on the 16th of January, 1809, when the Rifle Corps was retreating, he brought up the reserve to strengthen the right wing, and attacked the enemy so vigorously that the British were able to embark a few hours afterwards without opposition. From 1806 to 1812 he had represented Milbourne Port in parliament, but in the latter year, on the death of his father, he succeeded to the earldom of Uxbridge, and took his seat in the House of Peers. In the spring of 1815 he commanded the troops in suppressing the London riots, consequent upon the enactment of the Corn-law, and soon after the return of Napoleon from Elba he was placed at the head of the British cavalry in Flanders. At the battle of Waterloo he behaved with astonishing gallantry. On one occasion, being in the rear of his troops, he rode back alone towards a regiment of cuirassiers which he perceived forming for a charge on the road behind him. Although on galloping off he had waved his hat for his men to attack, no one had followed him excepting Colonel *Kelly of the* Horse Guards. This gallant officer remained

with him for more than a minute close in front of the French, who forbore to despatch them. The British cavalry, excited at length by the daring of their commander, came on to the charge, and the French, unable to withstand the shock of the attack, fell back in confusion. After having already charged on two occasions, Lord Uxbridge headed a fierce attack on nine thousand of the enemy, of whom three thousand were taken prisoners and nearly all the remainder slain. The battle had nearly closed when a ball from a field-piece struck him on the leg, which was subsequently amputated and buried in a garden near the field of Waterloo. Five days after the battle he was created Marquis of Anglesey; he also obtained for his eminent services Grand Crosses of the Bath and the Guelphic orders, with various honours from foreign princes, and eventually he became a Knight of the Garter. In passing through Lichfield, on his return to England, the corporation of that city presented him with a splendid sword, and some time afterwards a noble column was erected in North Wales, to mark the sense of his achievements entertained by the population of the principality. During the Queen's trial he became unpopular with the populace of London, on account of the support he gave to the Bill of Pains and Penalties; and on one occasion he was surrounded by a crowd of persons, who insisted upon his shouting with them in honour of the Queen. After much resistance he at length cried, "Well, then, the Queen! and may all your wives be like her!" In April 1827, during the premiership of Canning, he was made Master-general of the Ordnance, and in February 1828 the Wellington cabinet entrusted him with the vice-regency of Ireland. His impartial administration procured him popularity, while the firmness of his rule secured the respect of the most restless. In December 1828 he wrote a letter to Dr. Curtis, the Roman Catholic primate of Ireland, expressing opinions more favourable to Catholic emancipation than the imperial government could at that time resolve to adopt. His recall then became necessary, and he took his departure from Dublin on the 19th of December, 1828, amid the strongest expressions of public regret. The shops were closed as if for some public calamity, and thousands of all classes attended him to the place of embarkation. On his return to England, he spoke strongly in the House of Lords on

behalf of Catholic emancipation; and the measure which conceded that claim having been enacted, the marquis was speedily restored to the vice-regency. In September 1833 he resigned this honourable post, and remained in retirement until he was reappointed Master-general of the Ordnance in 1846. His lordship is lord-lieutenant and custos rotulorum of Anglesey and lord-lieutenant of Staffordshire, vice-admiral of North Wales and of Carmarthenshire, constable of Carnarvon Castle, ranger of Snowdon Forest, and patron of six livings. He was married in 1795 to the daughter of the fourth Earl of Jersey, but a divorce having terminated that union, he married in 1810 the daughter of the first Earl Cadogan.

ARAGO, ETIENNE, a journalist, is a brother of the celebrated astronomer. He was born at Perpignan, February 7, 1803; studied at the College of Sorreze, and held, during the period of the Restoration, an appointment in the Polytechnic School. Carried away by the false liberalism which at that time wore the mask of true liberty, Etienne Arago became a member of several secret societies; but before joining the carbonaire, among whom were already MM. Merilhon, Barthe, and Cousin, he resigned his employment at the Polytechnic. M. Merilhon entrusted him with a secret mission to the South of France, addressing him in the words of Virgil, "*Inacte animo, generose puer.*" The society being dissolved, E. Arago entered upon a literary career; wrote vaudevilles and melodramas; and, faithful to his opinions, founded two opposition journals, "La Lorgnette" and "Le Figaro;" the latter in conjunction with M. Maurice Alhoy. In 1829 he became director of the Théâtre de Vaudeville, the doors of which he closed on the 27th of July, 1830, the day after the publication of the ordonnances of Charles X.; thus being one of the first to give the signal of the revolution. Having distributed to the insurgents all the arms to be found in his theatre, he fought during the memorable three days. On the 29th he joined M. Baude at the Hôtel de Ville, and afterwards conducted Lafayette thither. He subsequently took part with numbers of his friends in the insurrectionary movements of June and April; but it was his good fortune to be either unnoticed or forgotten, and he was not included *among the number* of the accused who expiated their im-

prudence in St. Pelagie. In 1840 the privilege of the direction of the Vaudeville Theatre was withdrawn by the government, after he had produced there one hundred and twenty original melodramatic works. He subsequently connected himself with the Paris press, and wrote political articles and theatrical *feuilletons* for the "Siècle" and "National." He was one of the founders of the "Réforme," in which he long wrote the articles under the head of *Spectacles*.

ARAGO, FRANCOIS DOMINIQUE, the eldest brother of a numerous family, all the members of which have made a name in science, letters, or arms, was born at Estagel, near the frontiers of Spain, in the south of France, February 26, 1786. A rustic life appeared to be his most probable destiny, but his father having been called by the Revolution to Perpignan, and distinguishing himself by his disinterestedness and public spirit, François, whose superior native talent had already betrayed itself, was sent to a good school at Toulouse. Afterwards he presented himself to be examined as a candidate for pupillage at the Polytechnic School of Paris, and his answer to the first question so astonished the examiner that he declined to put a second, but sent him to the Parisian establishment with high compliments. At the Polytechnic he made rapid progress, and thus early gave token of his independence of character by refusing to subscribe his adhesion to the Constitution of the empire. On leaving this institution he was attached to the Observatory of Paris, and shortly afterwards received the honourable order to join M. Biot in his operation of measuring an arc of the meridian in Spain. While M. Arago was at Galazo, in Majorca, war broke out between France and Spain; and under pretence that the fires which he made to aid his scientific measurements were intended to enlighten the march of the French troops, an attempt was made by the populace to seize Arago. He escaped to the coast in disguise, but was refused succour by the captain of the Mystique, to whose ship he had fled, and who had hitherto obeyed his least orders. In this extremity he turned for safety to the prison, to place himself under the protection of the authorities, and had to run through a furious crowd, one of whom stabbed him by the way. By the connivance of the Spanish captain-general, Arago, assisted by a faithful *follower*, escaped from prison after a brief con-

finement, and reached a boat which was waiting for him at the shore. In this he passed through the English squadron, and entered the port of Algiers, where he procured a vessel better fitted for the voyage to France. Embarked afresh, he arrived within view of Marseilles, but there the ship was attacked by a Spanish corsair, and Arago was taken prisoner to Rosas. Here all the preparations for a military execution were made before his eyes, with a view to frighten Arago, who was unknown, into the confession that he was an emigrant Spaniard, and so gain a pretence for confiscating the coveted vessel. In the end he was placed in the cellar of a prison, where he lived without light, overrun with vermin, and was often left for two days together without food. It happened that the Algerine vessel by which Arago had sailed had carried two lions, intended by the dey as a present to the emperor. One of these died on the passage, and Arago contrived to send a letter to the dey, informing him that his lion had been starved to death by the Spaniards; which was, perhaps, a good guess at the truth. The dey, enraged at the loss of the beast, addressed an angry letter to the Spanish government, demanded recompense for the arbitrary seizure of the vessel, and threatened war if it were not immediately restored. A permission to set sail for Marseilles soon after reached Arago, just as he thought his affairs were at the worst; but the incompetent pilot conducted the ship at a venture about the Mediterranean for several days, and at last made a landing at Bougie. As the ship was no longer sea-worthy, Arago resolved to proceed to Algiers by land, disguised as an Arab, and conducted by a Marabout; a feat which long lacked credence among the French officers. The dey had just died; a revolution, of which Arago was a witness, immediately destroyed his successor; the new ruler demanded of the French government payment of a pretended debt; and as a categoric refusal arrived from Paris, Arago, with every Frenchman in Algiers, was inscribed on the list of slaves, expecting every day to be conducted to the galleys. At length, in 1809, after enduring many hardships, Arago obtained permission to leave Africa with a convoy of Algerian vessels and a corsair of the same nation; but just as they were in sight of Algiers, the convoy was stopped by two English frigates, and brought to Lord Collingwood. The corsair *in which Arago sailed* managed to escape, and after being

chased once or twice, safely landed him in France. He repaired to Paris, and was elected a member of the Institute. It would be endless to repeat all the brilliant discoveries with which he has enriched science since this event. We may mention his determination of the diameters of planets, afterwards adopted by Laplace; the discovery of coloured polarization, and that of magnetism by rotation, which gained for him the Copley medal of our Royal Society. Besides these, Arago has published innumerable scientific notices, now scattered up and down in the "Transactions of the Academy of Sciences," of which he was long the secretary; the "Memoirs of Arceuil," the Notes to the "Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes," and many others. Arago is a member of every great scientific society of Europe. He has several times visited England, and has received the honorary citizenship of Glasgow and Edinburgh. In the Revolution of July he came forward and espoused the democratic cause, and went to Marmont, his friend, to persuade him not to attack the citizens. He afterwards sat in the Chamber of Deputies for the department of the Pyrenées Orientales, and voted with the extreme left. Although taking an active part in politics, the ardour of his other pursuits never abated. For many years he has been at the head of the Paris Observatory, and has directed all the operations which have given that institution so much distinction in the annals of astronomical science. Arago is as distinguished in literature and oratory as in science. The *éloges* which, in his capacity of Secretary to the Academy, it has been his duty to compose upon the decease of its members, have considerably elevated that species of writing, and his lectures on astronomy never failed to gather around him overflowing auditories. During the brief administration of the Provisional Government in 1848, of which he was a member, Arago enjoyed an opportunity of assisting to apply principles for which he had during a life-time contended and suffered. As Minister of Marine he succeeded in obtaining the adhesion of the whole of that important service to the Republic, and ably discharging the duties of his office, proved how narrow were the views of those who had asserted that a life of scientific labour was destructive of business habits and ability. Since the advent of Louis Napoleon, M. Arago has occupied himself *almost exclusively* with professional affairs. Arago,

as an orator, has on several occasions made a "sensation" in the Chamber. One instance is thus described by a French writer:—"A literary debate arose about fifteen years ago in the Chamber of Deputies, in the course of which Arago found himself pitted against Lamartine. M. Arago, the illustrious representative of science amongst us, attacked the worship of antiquity, and placed the learned men and the philosophers of modern times far before the masters of art and of imagination. M. De Lamartine could not control himself at a speech which displaced from their pedestals Homer, and Virgil, and Plato, and Cicero,—all the poets of antiquity—all the gods of his youth. And with what genius, with what prevailing grace, with what an earnest and intimate conviction of the spirit did he handle the cause of taste and imagination—that cause which was thenceforth his own! M. Arago, in turn, replied with admirable temper, with sound logic, and with a deep conviction also;—it was a combat in the lists, with the arms of courtesy, between contemporary science and contemporary literature, each represented by its most distinguished professor. The Chamber gazed upon this elegant and loyal passage of arms—applauded the combatants—and found both in the right. That was a brilliant day of repose and recreation amidst our political annals. The public business, to be sure, was not a bit advanced by it; but the world had the opportunity of hearing two men of genius speak their own language,—and the result was two fine discourses the more, and perhaps one law the less. Arago is a man endowed with all the strength of an unbending spirit,—self-possessed, even amidst that political enthusiasm which made him a Republican." He has declared himself to be "a sworn enemy of privileges, a hater of monopoly, a friend to free trade, and an ardent defender of the rights of the people."

ARGYLL, GEORGE JOHN DOUGLAS CAMPBELL, DUKE OF, is chiefly distinguished for the prominent part he has borne in maintaining the principles of the Church of Scotland. His grace was born 1823, and when but nineteen years of age, being then Marquis of Lorn, he published a "Letter to the Peers from a Peer's Son," in which he discussed the constitutional principles involved in the celebrated *Auchterarder* case, which led soon after to the dis-

ruption of the Church of Scotland. But although he asserted the rights of the Church against the patron and the Government, he remained behind when so many hundreds sacrificed homes and incomes in the cause for which he wrote. In 1848 he published his largest work, "Presbytery Examined," in which he takes a survey of the ecclesiastical history of Scotland since the Reformation, and makes good the Presbyterian form of church government against the early and more recent assaults of prelacy. The duke is a man of considerable secular attainments, takes a great interest in literature and natural science, attending and occasionally speaking at the meetings of the British Association.

AUGUSTENBURG, CHRISTIAN AUGUST, DUKE OF SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN-SONDERBURG-AUGUSTENBURG, born July 19th, 1798, is the chief of the younger branch of the royal line of the house of Holstein. It is to the head of this younger branch that, according to ancient treaties, the sovereignty of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein should fall, in case of the death of the King of Denmark without male issue. The name of this prince has thus been much before the public in connexion with the still unsettled contest between the duchy of Holstein and the Danes. Brought up under the enlightened direction of the late Duke Frederic-Christian, his father, one of the most learned and accomplished princes of his age, and afterwards under that of his mother, Louis-Auguste, the Duke of Augustenburg completed his brilliant education by instructive travels, undertaken in 1818, 1819, and 1820, in Germany, Switzerland, Italy, France, and England. In 1830 he married Louis-Sophie, countess of Danniskjold-Samsoe. In the proceedings of the provincial diets to which Frederick VI. committed the direction of the German states, after the French revolution of July, the Duke of Augustenburg took a prominent part, distinguishing himself as much by his zeal in the cause of liberty and progress as by his great oratorical ability. The duke is a large landed proprietor, and has spent immense sums in the improvement of the agriculture of his country. His stud at Augustenburg was one of the finest in Europe. He enjoys an unbounded popularity in both duchies, of which their inhabitants have lately *given proofs, unhappily* too familiar to the world to

need recital. Since the downfall of the Stattholdershaft of Schleswig-Holstein, the duke's estates have been confiscated, and he has been declared a traitor. He has appealed to the German Diet for protection against the consequences of this decree, and his claim is still before that body. Meanwhile earnest endeavours are making to settle the succession to the duchies to his exclusion.

AUSTRIA, EMPEROR OF. François Joseph Charles ascended the throne of Austria Dec. 2, 1849, on the abdication of his uncle Ferdinand I. Francis Joseph is the eldest son of the Archduke Francis Charles, who stood next to the late emperor in the legal order of succession, and the Princess Sophia, and was born August 18, 1830. The young emperor has not yet been crowned in any of his dominions, nor has he sworn to any constitution. On ascending the throne, however, he promised in the most solemn manner to give freedom and a constitutional government to his country. His first proclamation contained the following passage:—"We are convinced of the necessity and value of free institutions, and enter with confidence on the path of a prosperous reformation of the monarchy. On the basis of true liberty, on the basis of the equality of the rights of all our people, and the equality of all citizens before the law, and on the basis of their equal participation in the representation and legislation, the country will rise to its ancient grandeur, and will become a hall to shelter many tongues united under the sceptre of our fathers." The first act of the young monarch was to close the national representative assembly met at Kremsier; the second, to cancel the ancient constitution of Hungary and promulgate a charter which has never been so much as attempted to be realised, and which August 1851 saw withdrawn. By the aid of the emperor of Russia he succeeded in overwhelming the resistance of the Hungarian nation, while Radetsky secured the submission of the Lombard and Venetian kingdom. Having thus gained internal peace and freedom of governmental and legislative action, he promulgated the notorious edicts of Schonbrunn, September 26, 1851, in which he declared his ministers "responsible to no other political authority besides the throne." He added, "The *cabinet must swear* unconditional fidelity, as also the en-

gagement to fulfil all my ordinances and resolutions. It will be its duty to carry out my will concerning all laws and administrative acts, whether considered necessary by the ministers or originating with me." Such is at present the isolated situation chosen by this young monarch, called by the necessities of his position to compose and balance the dissatisfactions and resentments of five races of his subjects, without a parliament, or so much as a constitutional council to stand by his side.

AYTOUN, WILLIAM, Author of "Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers," is a member of the Edinburgh bar, but has never, we believe, devoted himself to any extent to the severer duties of his profession. He has long, however, been one of the standing wits of the Parliament House, as the law courts of Edinburgh are locally denominated. Some five or six years ago he succeeded Mr. Moir as Professor of Literature and Belles Lettres in the University of Edinburgh, where his lectures—full of pith, energy, and distinguished by fine literary taste—are in great vogue. Professor Aytoun has been for some years one of the chief contributors to "Blackwood's Magazine," and few numbers appear from which his hand is absent. At the time of the railway mania he flung off a series of papers,—the first entitled, "How we got up the Glen Mutchkin Railway," descriptive of the doings in the Capel Court of Edinburgh and Glasgow; papers which for broad, vigorous humour, and felicitous setting forth of genuine Scotch character, are almost unrivalled. Under the *nom de guerre* of Augustus Dunshunner—then first adopted—the professor frequently contributes pieces of off-hand criticism on books and men to "Blackwood," taking especial delight in showing up what he conceives to be the weak points of the Manchester school; and, humorous though the general tone of the papers be, hesitates not to dash headlong at piles of statistics intended to prop up the fallen cause of protection. Mr. Aytoun's politics, as may be inferred from his sole work published in an independent form, the "Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers," are high Tory, or, rather, they amount to a sort of poetic and theoretical Jacobitism, which finds vent in enthusiastic laudation of the Marquis of Montrose and the Viscount *Dundee, as models* of Scottish heroes. The ballads

in question are strongly tinged by deep national feeling, and remind the reader of Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome;" and, from the more picturesque nature of the subject, are, perhaps, even still more highly coloured. "Edinburgh after Flodden," the "Death of Montrose," and the "Battle of Killicrankie," are strains which Scotchmen will not willingly let die. Professor Aytoun married, about three years ago, one of the daughters of another professor, whose place in "Blackwood's Magazine" he seems likely to fill—Professor Wilson, otherwise Christopher North.

B.

BABBAGE, CHARLES, a Mathematician and Philosophical Mechanist, was born in 1790, and educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. Having distinguished himself at the mathematical examination, he took the M.A. degree, and, possessed of competency, prepared to devote himself to develope the applications of his favourite science. In the course of his studies he found the logarithmic tables then in use—the ready reckoner, so to speak, by which the larger operations of astronomical calculation are worked out—extremely defective, and even false. The national value of such tables had long been recognised by every government, and large sums had been expended in preparing such as could have, after all, but a proximate accuracy; because from the calculations of the astronomer are derived the data by which every seaman navigates the ocean, and every headland and island is marked in his chart. Mr. Babbage set himself to consider whether it were not possible to substitute for the perturbable processes of the intellect the unerring movements of mechanism in the preparation of logarithmic tables. The idea was not a new one: Pascal, and other eminent mathematicians, having projected similar contrivances. Hitherto, however, nothing had been accomplished; and thus the work to be achieved was one of invention, and not of improvement. As a mathematician he was intimately conversant with the fixed laws which govern *the generation of a particular* set of numbers from any other

given combination; he, therefore, had next to qualify himself, by a study of the resources of engineering, for judging how far the construction of such an engine was possible. For this purpose he visited the various centres of machine labour, as well on the Continent as in England; inspected and compared wheels, levers, valves, &c., studied their various functions; and on his return, in 1821, undertook to direct the construction of a calculating machine for the government. It may be mentioned, in passing, that this tour of inspection gave occasion to his work on the "Economy of Manufactures," a subject then new to literary treatment, in which he opened up a field of illustration which has since been ranged by a multitude of writers. By 1833 a portion of the machine was put together, and it was found to perform its work with all the precision that had been predicted of it. It both calculated the sums given into it, and delivered the result perfectly printed at one of its issues. It would compute with 4000 figures, and calculate the numerical value of any algebraic function; and would, also, at any period previously fixed upon, contingent upon certain events, cease to tabulate that function, and commence the calculation of a different one. By its aid he prepared his "Tables of Logarithms of the Natural Numbers," from 1 to 108,000, a work whose facile arrangement and unparalleled accuracy was received with gratitude throughout Europe, into the languages of which it was speedily translated. Mr. Babbage was now, in 1828, called by his own university to fill the chair of its Mathematical Professorship, where once Sir Isaac Newton had taught, and continued to discharge the duties of that office for eleven years. During this period he devoted all his leisure to the perfection of his machine, and made so many improvements in it that the cost of the mechanism was swelled to 17,000*l.*, although the inventor received no direct remuneration for his own skill and services. In 1833, for some reason at present unexplained, the construction of the calculating machine was suspended, and yet remains so. Mr. Babbage is a member of the chief learned societies of London and Edinburgh, and his contributions to their Transactions have been considerable. He has, also, published a fragment, which he calls "A Ninth Bridgewater Treatise," a volunteer production, designed at once to refute the assertion made by the first writer in that series,—that ardent devotion

to mathematical studies is unfavourable to faith, and also to give specimens of the defensive aid which the evidences of Christianity may receive from the science of numbers. The volume is not likely to become popular; but it is very curious to note how the calculating machine is made to refute Hume's argument against miracles, which, it is known, is founded on a calculation of probabilities. Mr. Babbage has seen much of the secret workings of our learned societies, and has set himself heartily to denounce their abuses, and the spirit of clique by which they are nearly all pervaded. Familiarity with these evils appears to have disposed him to take a desponding view of the state of science in England,—a state of mind which, openly expressed in his volume called "The Decline of Science," is still betrayed in his last work, "The Great Exhibition," published in 1851.

BADEN, CHARLES LEOPOLD FREDERICK, GRAND DUKE OF, a reigning prince, born Aug. 29, 1790; succeeded to the sovereignty of the duchy 30th of March, 1830; married, in 1819, to a daughter of Gustavus Adolphus IV., king of Sweden. Has seven children, the second of whom, Prince Louis, born in 1824, is next heir to the Grand Duchy.

BAILEY, PHILIP JAMES, born in 1816, son of the proprietor of the "Nottingham Mercury," published, in 1839, a poem called "Festus;" which gained a considerable amount of popularity, but has not followed it up by any other work. Mr. Bailey is at the bar, but has never practised.

BANCROFT, GEORGE, an American Historian and Ambassador, born at Worcester, Massachusetts, in the year 1800; son of a Doctor of Divinity, who was himself an author, and who probably gave to his son's mind the bent that was afterwards to give him celebrity, position, and power. At the age of seventeen, Mr. Bancroft graduated at Harvard College with honours, and at first thought of entering the church, of which his father had been a respectable member; but having set out on his travels, he reached Germany, and there studying under Heeren and Schlosser, he abandoned divinity for history, and seems to have determined upon becoming an historian himself. Italy, France, and England *were visited before he* returned to America, and in each he

seems to have gleaned a variety of valuable ideas, fated at a later time to bear abundant fruit. In 1823 he published a small collection of poems, and soon afterwards a translation from one of Heeren's Historical Treatises. But poetry and German theories give poor incomes, and so he set up a school, in which he taught assiduously, and wrought no less diligently in rendering into English a number of works on history and classical literature. He now began to take a strong interest in politics, beginning as a "Whig" (as the American "Tories" are called), and ending as a Democrat, consummating his conversion by an article in the "Boston Quarterly Review," on the Progress of Civilization, in which he strove to show that the natural alliance of literary men is with the extreme liberal party. In 1834 Mr. Bancroft began the publication of his "History of the Colonization of the United States," which was most favourably received by his countrymen. The first volume was followed by a second, and by other literary efforts, all equally distinguished by talent and industrious research. Then came a result common in America and France, but almost unknown in England. The talents displayed in the ranks of literature became an introduction to the doors of government; the man who could write well, and wisely, and usefully, was appointed to a lucrative official post — the collectorship of customs at Boston. The duties of this office did not divert him from study or from the completion of his History, the third volume of which appeared in 1840. Cabinet changes at Washington lost him his appointment for a while, but the Democrats again took the reins of power in 1844, and Bancroft then became Secretary of the Navy. Of the service over which he was thus placed he became a judicious but firm reformer; adding to its efficiency by the establishment of a nautical school in one place, and an astronomical observatory in another. In 1846 he became Minister Plenipotentiary to Great Britain, and in October of that year reached London, where he remained until political changes brought Mr. Abbot Lawrence amongst us in his stead. Mr. Bancroft's chief historical works have been translated into several Continental languages. He is one of the writers in the "North American Review."

BARAGUAY, D'HILLIERS, a French soldier and po-

litician, fought and bled for his country under Napoleon, and subsequently took an active part in the conquest and pacification of Algeria. He was one of the first to welcome the proclamation of the Republic of 1848. He subsequently accepted the chief command of the force destined for the protection of the Assembly, but resigned his office upon a point of personal honour.

BARING, SIR FRANCIS THORNHILL, Bart., First Lord of the Admiralty, Privy Councillor, and M.P. for Portsmouth for about thirty years, was educated at Oxford, and called to the bar in 1823. He has had considerable official experience; he was a Lord of the Treasury from 1830 to 1834, from which latter year to 1839 he was one of the joint secretaries; he became Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1839, and retained that office till the autumn of 1841; he was then, with his party, for awhile out of office, but in 1849 was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty. He is a member of the celebrated commercial family, and is regarded as a Whig politician of business habits, rather than a great orator or political genius.

BARING, THOMAS, is the son of Sir Thomas Baring, of Larkbeare, Devon, who was brother to the founder of the present house of Ashburton. Mr. Thomas Baring early engaged in those mercantile pursuits in which all his family have won a name, and entered into political life in the year 1835, when he was elected to represent the constituency of Yarmouth in Parliament, and sat till 1837. In the general election of that year he regained his seat, but a petition was presented against his election, which resulted in a new contest unfavourable to Mr. Baring. In 1843, upon the decease of Sir Matthew Wood, he became a candidate for the honour of representing the City of London, when he had for his opponent Mr. Pattison. At the close of the poll Mr. Baring was in a minority of 156. On the elevation of Sir Frederick Pollock to the bench in April 1844, Mr. Baring was elected for the borough of Huntingdon, which he still represents. In politics, Mr. Thomas Baring is a Conservative; he was thus opposed to his brother Francis, the late Whig Chancellor of the Exchequer, during his parliamentary career. *It is, however, as a capitalist* and member of a house con-

nected with some of the greatest monetary operations of the age, that he is most widely known.

BARROT, ODILLON, an Ex-minister of State in France, was born at Villefort, July 19th, 1790; his father was successively deputy in the first Constituent Assembly, in the Convention, in the Council of Five Hundred, and in the Legislative Body. Odillon Barrot was a barrister, practising at the Court of Cassation from 1811 to 1831. A popular journal says of him, that "half of his life has been spent in the arena of politics. He was a very young man when he first entered the Chamber of Deputies, in the time of Louis XVIII., having already acquired a high reputation as one of the most eloquent pleaders at the French bar. He had everything in his favour,—countenance, figure, voice, gesture, and great tact united with energy. He soon exercised a considerable amount of influence in the Chamber, and was in time looked upon as the Demosthenes of the Liberal Opposition. Often and often the ministers of Louis XVIII. and Charles X. endeavoured to conciliate him: the latter even offered him places and pensions; but he preferred independence, and never yielded. M. de Villèle, the predecessor of Polignac, endeavoured to crush the Opposition; but Odillon Barrot worried Villèle so unmercifully that he was compelled to yield. On the 26th of July, 1830, the ordinances—the memorable ordinances—appeared in the 'Moniteur;' and Odillon Barrot immediately repaired to the house of M. Dupin, where several other deputies were already assembled, and where he proposed that energetic protest which was to put arms into the hands of the citizens, and determine them to resist oppression. On the following day, M. Barrot declared, at a meeting of deputies, 'that every tie which attached France to the throne of the Bourbons was broken, and that the nation must appeal to insurrection against an authority that had trampled on every law.' At one time, during the Revolution of 1830, matters wore so gloomy an aspect for the popular cause, that the deputies who countenanced and encouraged the insurrection were reduced to eight in number. M. O. Barrot was one of those eight. When the Revolution was triumphant, and Charles, having quitted St. Cloud, had resolved to make *a stand at Rambouillet,* Odillon Barrot, Schonen, and Maison,

were the three commissioners appointed by the Provisional Government to intimate that the crown-jewels would be restored to the royal family on condition of an immediate departure for Cherbourg. The proposal was accepted, and Odillon Barrot accompanied the king to the ship. Louis Philippe had not long been seated on the French throne, when it became apparent that he treated the Charter as so much waste paper. Odillon Barrot was amongst the first to raise his voice in the Chamber of Deputies against a reactionary policy. In 1839 he visited this country, and pushed his tour into Scotland; and, during his sojourn in Great Britain, he frequently expressed his desire that a permanent alliance should subsist between England and France. But when the Thiers' administration was formed in 1840, M. Odillon Barrot gave it his support, and joined in the war-cry of '*La perfide Albion!*' but no sooner had the Thiers' cabinet fallen than Barrot's eyes were opened to the duplicity of the king, towards whom, from that instant, he became bitterly hostile. He was foremost in getting up the agitation in favour of reform, and he attended several of the provincial banquets which led to the revolution of 1848 and the downfall of Louis Philippe; but he did not foresee the results to which the agitation, partly aroused by himself, was inevitably to lead, for he stopped short in the middle, and accepted the task of forming a cabinet in company with Thiers, and supported the rights of the Count of Paris to the throne, and those of the Duchess of Orleans to the Regency." Under Louis Napoleon he was some time a minister, and conducted the government of France with success till the French President's policy required other agents.

BARRY, CHARLES, Architect of the New Houses of Parliament, is a native of Ireland; and before his designs for the Palace of Westminster were accepted, had gained considerable reputation in his art by the construction of the Travellers' Club-house, remarkable for its exterior; the Reform Club-house, with its famous hall; the Schools at Birmingham; and the elegantly-proportioned Library of the College of Surgeons, in Lincoln's Inn Fields. The Houses of Parliament must be, however, the work by which he is to be judged. Their slow progress has for years been a subject *of remark. In 1836* there was a joint Committee of both

Houses of Parliament appointed to consider Mr. Barry's estimates, and the estimate that gentleman delivered to this Committee amounted to 1,110,004*l.* Mr. Barry, when he delivered this estimate, voluntarily informed the Committee that it would take him six years to complete the building. After twice that number of years had elapsed, in 1848, there had been expended upon the work nearly 1,401,036*l.*, and the members of the House of Commons were still without their new discussion hall. In the year 1839 there was a roving commission of geologists appointed, who went through England and Wales to examine into the different qualities of stone best adapted for the purposes of the building, the expense of which commission amounted to 4902*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.* The expense of warming and ventilating the building has been 96,000*l.* But both Lords and Commons may now be regarded as lodged in their new palace, though how long it will be before the new houses are complete, or how much money they will cost altogether, is still a question for the future to solve.

BARTHELEMY, ST. HILAIRE, a French Politician, who acted as Secretary to the Provisional Government of 1848, was born at Paris, 1792. He is a member of the Institute, and since 1830 has been known as one of the first political writers of his time. He was one of the journalists who gave the signal for the barricades of July, and was afterwards a coadjutor of Armand Carrel of the "National." He was thus early well known to entertain republican opinions, and when the revolution of February occurred he was chosen Deputy of the Seine-et-Oise in the Assembly which founded the Republic.

BASTIAT, FREDERICK, a French Economist and Author, is well known on both sides the Channel as a champion of the doctrines of free trade. He has for several years conducted the "Annuaire d'Economie Politique;" and his "Popular Fallacies concerning General Interests" is one of the best exposures of the Protectionist system ever written.

BASTIDE, JULES, the French legislator, is fifty years of age. A Parisian in all things, his studies in the French metropolis *had distinguished* him before he left college.

But instead of embracing a career which might have led him rapidly to fortune, Bastide sacrificed his future to his opinions, and entered the Carbonari (*le carbonarisme*), of which he was one of the most active members. This Society was dissolved in consequence of the Bedford defeat. Out of its wrecks was formed the Society "Aide tois, le Ciel t'aidera," to which Bastide lost no time in uniting himself. After the revolution of July, Bastide, who had fought among the bravest, opposed himself to the utmost against the royalty of the Duke of Orleans, proposed by M. Thiers and some others, who had not fought at all. In 1832, Bastide was chief of a squadron of artillery. He still fought, as he had done in July, against royalty. The results of the insurrection of the 5th June are known to all. The artillery of the National Guard was disbanded. Bastide, found guilty of contumacy, was condemned to death and fled to England, whence he returned at the end of eighteen months. During this time the reactionary fury had had time to cool itself, and Bastide was acquitted. Some time afterward he started the "National." He joined Armand Carrel and Trelat, and shared, in common with them, the management of that democratic journal, which neither fine nor imprisonment, nor persecutions of any kind, have been able to put down. Bastide, in the "National," dealt more especially with questions of foreign policy and all which concerned the armed force. After having directed the "National" almost single-handed for some time, he called in the aid of Armand Marrast. He soon became a less active editor of the paper. The struggle, doubtless, had fatigued him, and he felt the need of domestic repose. It is said, too, that Bastide, thoroughly religious, was at times hurt at the wild sallies of his colleagues with regard to Catholicism. However, Bastide still keeps up his connexion with the "National." In 1847 he formed, in conjunction with Buchez, the "Revue Nationale," to support the republican doctrines and the social system of the latter. Bastide showed his courage at Grenoble in the insurrection of 1832; and his writings prove him to be a man of elevated intellect, whatever judgment may be pronounced on his opinions.

BATHIANY, COUNT CASIMIR, an ex-Minister of Hungary, belongs to an ancient noble family, which has given

palatines, archbishops, generals, and ambassadors to its country. The chief landed estates are in the hands of the Prince Bathiany of the elder line, who never meddles with politics. On his death, the estates should in law descend to Count Gustavus, long resident in England, and the subject of this sketch, till lately Kossuth's fellow-exile at Kutahia. Count Casimir received, according to the custom promoted by Austrian policy among the nobility, an anti national education, and passed many years in the highest circles of European society. He returned to his native Hungary; and from the period of 1839 until the revolution devoted himself to his duties in the House of Peers. In 1848, as lord lieutenant of the county of Baranyer, he took an active part in the organisation and equipment of a national guard; and when the fortress of Esseg rebelled against the national government, he led a force against it, and took it. In the following year he acted as commander of the troops at Esseg, and distinguished himself by bravery and skill. By a traitorous device he was sent to Debreczin, on a mission, and after his departure the fortress surrendered. He served in Perczel's campaign against the Servians, and was present at the taking of St. Thomas by storm. In April 1849 he accepted from Kossuth the department of Foreign Affairs. On the surrender of Georgey's army he shared the captivity of Kossuth, and now lives privately in Paris.

BAVARIA, MAXIMILIAN JOSEPH, the second King of, born Nov. 28, 1811, took the reins of government March 21, 1848, on the abdication of his father (the patron of Lola Montes); married to a princess of Prussia, who was born in 1825, and has two sons, the eldest of whom, Louis, born Aug. 25, 1825, is heir to the throne. Maximilian's brother, Otho, is king of Greece.

BELGIANS, LEOPOLD, King of the, born Dec. 16, 1790, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, married Nov. 6, 1817, to the Princess Charlotte, only child of George the Fourth of England; elected King of the Belgians on the 4th of June, and mounted the throne of that kingdom July 21, 1831; married, secondly, 9th Aug. 1832, to Louise, daughter of Louis Philippe, then King of the French, by whom he has three children, the eldest of whom, *Leopold*, born April 9, 1832, is his heir.

BERANGER, PIERRE JEAN, the great song-writer of France, was born in 1780, in Paris, of very humble parents. The future poet's earlier days were passed in poor employments, but the thrill of exultation that ran through France when the news arrived of the victory of Marengo awoke in the breast of Béranger the slumbering spirit of song, that has ever since poured out its notes to gladden and vivify the nationality of Frenchmen. His works rapidly became so popular that their author was enabled to enjoy in purse the independence which was the real jewel of his soul; and on he went, enjoying life himself and singing what greatly promoted the enjoyments of others. But the Bourbons in time were restored, and the freedom of our poet's thoughts did not suit their politics; so, in 1821, they put Béranger into gaol for three months. He bowed and endured, and, the three months expired, came forth from prison and again wrote his songs, and was again, in 1828, put under lock and key for nine months. When Louis Philippe came, he proved to be no more favourable to free expression in type than his relations, the elder Bourbons, had been; but in all ill-fortune Béranger still had his good temper and his muse to console him, and manfully lived through the evil days. When the Revolution of 1848 resulted in the Republic, nothing would suit his countrymen but making Béranger a senator; and he was accordingly elected a member of the National Assembly. From the duties of his heavy post he pleaded age and the claims of his muse as an exemption; and he still lives, enjoying a ripe old age, free from the cares of politics or the vexations of party.

BERRYER, M., a French Politician, began his career at the bar, where he achieved the most signal success. He has ever been a distinguished member of the legitimist party. At the Restoration he exerted himself most energetically to moderate the rule of the Bourbons, and was one of the defenders of Marshal Ney. Neither the monarchy of July nor the Republic has seen the least wavering in his opinions; and at this moment he is one of the councillors and agents of the Comte de Chambord, the legitimist pretender to the government of France.

BILLAULT, M., formerly an Advocate of Nantes and ex-*Deputy for the Loire* Inférieure, aspired to the Ministry

when the revolution of February broke out. Scarcely had he entered the Chamber before he commenced a somewhat rigid opposition to the ministry on all points, and particularly with regard to the relations of France with foreign powers. He then followed in the train of M. Thiers; afterwards, aided by M. Dufaure, he undertook a progressive opposition, which led him to be regarded at the palace as a person who must be conciliated in some way. The means chosen consisted of an offer of the law business of the Duke d'Aumale, the most wealthy prince of the family. This connexion was accepted, to the great scandal of the political friends of the hon. member. He then consulted, pleaded, and pursued pleasure (freely enough, it was said), but none the less kept up a rash and severe warfare against the corruption and frauds under which Guizot fell,—at the same time, royalty. Around the new *régime* he unhesitatingly rallied, declaring from the first days of March that "in his opinion we must definitively endow our country with a democratic government, at once strong and tranquil; and to this all his efforts would tend."

BINNEY, THOMAS, a popular Nonconformist Preacher, is one of the most prominent leaders of the Independent connexion. He is a native of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, was educated for the ministry at Wynardley, Herts, at the academy endowed by Mr. Coward, and in due course became minister of St. James's Street Chapel, Newport, Isle of Wight. In 1829 he removed to London to become the minister of the congregation then meeting in a spacious hall over the Weigh House in Little Eastcheap, where was formerly placed the King's Beam, with which foreign merchandise brought to the port of London was weighed. In 1833 the congregation had increased to an extent which made it necessary to obtain a new place of meeting, and the foundation-stone of the New Weighhouse Chapel in Fish Street Hill was laid. The address which Mr. Binney then delivered, remarkable for the boldness and decision of its assertions, took effect in the actually excited state of men's minds, and its author was constituted a public man by the pointed attacks of the clergy, from the Bishop of London and Henry Melville downwards. In 1836 he assisted in founding the Colonial Missionary Society, and has subse-

quently been prominently engaged in all the affairs of his denomination. He has travelled in America, and written a few biographical works, besides innumerable pulpit exercises and religious brochures. He has, however, achieved most reputation in the pulpit, where he proves attractive less by the charm of oratory than by the employment of clear and original thought in scriptural exposition, a breadth in the treatment of his subjects, and the largeness of his sympathy with human nature.

BIRD, DR. ROBERT MONTGOMERY, an American Novelist, born in 1803, and educated in Philadelphia, began his career as a writer of tragedies, of which three were successful on the Yankee stage. The titles were "The Gladiator," "Oraloosa," and "The Broker of Bogota." Their popularity, however, did not prevent him from turning to another literary walk, and in 1834 we find him publishing a romance, "Calavar, or the Knight of the Conquest," a Mexican story. In the following year appeared "The Infidel, or the Fall of Mexico;" also a romance, forming a kind of sequel to his first production. Before many months had passed Dr. Bird came again into the literary arena, with "The Hawks of Hawks Hollow," which in its turn was followed, in 1837, by "Nick of the Woods," and subsequently by "Peter Pilgrim," and in 1839 by "The Adventures of Robin Day." After the publication of this work the author seems to have given up literature for the life of a great farmer; a result induced, it is said, by the want of patronage for native American literature, induced by the operation of piracy of European productions. Till an International Copyright Law is established, the writers of America will have but a poor share of their native market.

BISHOP, SIR HENRY ROWLEY, the only Musical Composer on whom the compliment of knighthood has been conferred. He is Professor of Music in the University of Oxford, to which dignity he was elected in 1848; and enjoys the degree of Bachelor of Music from the same institution. He conducted the Ancient Concerts for several years, and is the author of numerous successful musical compositions.

BIXIO, M., a French Physician and Legislator, and a

distinguished naturalist, who has devoted his scientific knowledge to the service of agriculture by founding the Maison Rustique of the 19th Century, and by encouraging every attempt to do away with the old senseless routine. M. Bixio accepted of the Government of the Republic an extraordinary mission to Turin, but soon asked permission to return and take part in the labours of the National Assembly.

BLANC, LOUIS, a Political Theorist, whose writings contributed powerfully to hasten the French revolution of February, was born at Madrid in 1813, and is of Corsican extraction, his mother being sister to the celebrated Pozzo di Borgo. He was remarkable at college for his great natural talents and perseverance in study, and proposed to himself the diplomatic profession, in which his uncle had acquired fame. His figure is that of a boy of twelve, and has caused him more than once to occupy a very ludicrous situation. Having been appointed secretary to his cousin, he first appeared on the stage of public life by attending one of the parties of the famous Duchess de Bino. The report of his talents and pretensions had preceded him thither, and his appearance was looked for with curiosity. He was presented by the veteran Pozzo himself, and on the announcement of the well-known name, all eyes were directed to the uncle, whose portly form concealed the meagre dimensions of the new comer. Arrived at the head of the room, the old ambassador said to the duchess, "Permit me to introduce to your notice my nephew." The lady raised herself with a languid air from the sofa, and exclaimed in a tone of sweet bewilderment, "*Where* is he? I should be delighted to see him." That very evening Louis Blanc told his uncle that he resigned all pretensions to the post which had been obtained for him with so much difficulty, and resolved to devote his talents to the service of those to whom they might be of value. The result of this unfortunate *soirée* may be traced in every line of his book, "The History of Ten Years," which Louis Philippe was often heard to declare acted as a battering-ram to the bulwarks of loyalty in France. The humble employment of clerk in a notary's office was the first resource that offered itself to the man of genius. He subsequently found more congenial occupation as tutor in a private family, and shortly afterwards made his way to eminence

among the journalists of Paris. With the revolution of February an opportunity offered to put in practice the doctrines he had advocated in his recent work, "The Organisation of Labour." He proposed, by means of a government loan, to create social workshops in all the most important branches of national industry; the workmen in which should receive equal wages, the government relying on the point of honour instead of competition to secure hard work. The gains were to form a general fund; one-fourth of which was to be reserved; a second portion to be given to the workmen; a third to form a fund for the old, the wounded, and the sick; and the last fourth to be applied to the *amortissement* of the capital. The new workshops were to remain during one year under the control of the government, after which they were to be regulated by directors elected by the workmen themselves. The experiment was made; a number of the least efficient workmen sauntered about the *ateliers* in the day, and listened to the glowing declamation of Louis Blanc in the evening; but the certain ruin delayed not; immense sums were sunk in the experiment, which ended in recrimination and general disgust. Louis Blanc was a member of the Provisional Government from February to May. On the meeting of the National Assembly the Executive Committee superseded that body, and this politician was not included among its members, but went into opposition. He was strongly suspected of being implicated in the conspiracy which led to the attack in the Assembly, May 15. He was certainly carried in triumph on the shoulders of the insurgents, and his name was on the list of the new government. In September the Assembly ordered the prosecution of M. Louis Blanc for conspiracy, and that gentleman immediately took the train for Ghent, on his way to England, where he has since remained.

BONAPARTE, LOUIS NAPOLEON, President of the French Republic, claims to be the legal representative, and head of the family, of the Emperor Napoleon. The present relations of the Bonaparte family are interesting, and have been thus stated. "Napoleon Bonaparte (as is well known) was the second son of C. M. Bonaparte, and he married, first, Josephine, by whom he had no issue; second, Marie-Louise *of Austria, whose* only child, the Duc de Reichstadt, died in

1832, at Vienna, when the right line of the imperial family became extinct. Napoleon had four brothers—Joseph, his elder, Lucien, Louis, and Jerôme; and three sisters—Eliza, Pauline, and Caroline. Joseph, king of Spain, left two daughters—Zenaïde and Charlotte; but no sons. Lucien, prince of Canino, had no fewer than eleven children—five sons and six daughters; of whom there are still living, Charles Napoleon, prince of Canino, who married his cousin Zenaïde, daughter and heiress of Joseph, by whom he has ten children,—Louis Lucien, Pierre Napoleon, Antoine, Charlotte (married to Prince Gabrielli), Christine (married to Lord Dudley Stuart, M.P. for Marylebone), Lætitia (married to the Right Hon. Thomas Wyse, Minister-Plenipotentiary to Greece), Alexandrine (married to Count Valentini), Constance (now a nun), and Jeanne (married to the Marquis Honorati). Louis, king of Holland, who married Queen Hortense, had three sons,—Napoleon, Napoleon Louis, and Louis Napoleon, the last, the only survivor, and now President of the French republic. Jerôme, king of Westphalia, had two sons—Jerôme Napoleon, and Napoleon; and one daughter, Mathilde, now Princess Demidoff. Of the sisters of Napoleon, Eliza married Prince Felix Bacchiochi, and left one daughter (now married to Count Camerata); Pauline left no children; Caroline married Murat, king of Naples, and became the mother of the present Lucien Charles Murat, of Lætitia (married to Count Pepoli), and of Louise (married to Count Rasponi). This is the entire Bonaparte family. Of the brothers and sisters of the Emperor, only Jerôme now remains. Of the second generation—his nephews and nieces—there are fourteen; and of the third generation there is a still more considerable number. As will be seen from the foregoing programme, Louis Napoleon is not the head of his family by order of nature. By right of primogeniture, all the descendants of Lucien would take precedence of the heirs of Louis; but, as is well known, Lucien was in disgrace when his imperious brother had the order of succession to the empire fixed, and he and his descendants were excluded. How far this law is binding in such a new state of things as the present, is a question which the partisans of the family frequently discuss. Louis Napoleon is the only remaining male member of the families *entitled by the* laws of the Empire (28 Floréal, an

among the journalists of Paris. With the revolution of February an opportunity offered to put in practice the doctrines he had advocated in his recent work, "The Organisation of Labour." He proposed, by means of a government loan, to create social workshops in all the most important branches of national industry; the workmen in which should receive equal wages, the government relying on the point of honour instead of competition to secure hard work. The gains were to form a general fund; one-fourth of which was to be reserved; a second portion to be given to the workmen; a third to form a fund for the old, the wounded, and the sick; and the last fourth to be applied to the *amortissement* of the capital. The new workshops were to remain during one year under the control of the government, after which they were to be regulated by directors elected by the workmen themselves. The experiment was made; a number of the least efficient workmen sauntered about the *ateliers* in the day, and listened to the glowing declamation of Louis Blanc in the evening; but the certain ruin delayed not; immense sums were sunk in the experiment, which ended in recrimination and general disgust. Louis Blanc was a member of the Provisional Government from February to May. On the meeting of the National Assembly the Executive Committee superseded that body, and this politician was not included among its members, but went into opposition. He was strongly suspected of being implicated in the conspiracy which led to the attack in the Assembly, May 15. He was certainly carried in triumph on the shoulders of the insurgents, and his name was on the list of the new government. In September the Assembly ordered the prosecution of M. Louis Blanc for [illegible] and that gentleman immediately took the [illegible] on his way to England, where he has [illegible]

BONAPARTE, LOUIS N[illegible]
French Republic, claims t[illegible]
head of the family, of the

XII., and 5 Frimaire, an XIII.—1804) to the succession. The Prince of Canino is the real head of the house. The other princes of the family who are at present prominently before the public are,—Pierre, brother to Canino; Napoleon, son of Jerôme, late ambassador to Madrid; and Lucien Murat;" all three members of the French Chamber. The President, Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, then, is the third son of Louis Bonaparte, ex-king of Holland; his mother being Hortense, the daughter of the Empress Josephine by her first marriage. Louis Napoleon was born at the Tuileries, April 20th, 1808, and his birth was announced over the Empire, and in Holland, by the roar of artillery,—since he, at that time, was one of the princes in the right line of succession to the Empire then victoriously held by his uncle. He and the King of Rome were the only two princes of the Bonaparte family born under the shadow of the imperial dignity. Prince Louis was baptized on the 4th of November, 1810, when the ceremony was performed by Cardinal Fesch; the Emperor and the Empress Maria-Louise being his sponsors. After Napoleon's return from Elba, his young nephew accompanied him to the Champ de Mai, and was there presented to the deputies of the people and the army. The splendour of this scene left, as was likely, a deep impression on the mind of the boy, then only seven years old. When Napoleon embraced him for the last time at Malmaison, he was much agitated; the child wished to follow his uncle, and was with difficulty pacified by his mother. Then commenced the banishment of the family. Louis and his mother first lived at Augsburg, and afterwards in Switzerland, the latter admitting the young exile to the rights of citizenship, and permitting his service in their small army. For awhile he studied gunnery at the military academy on the shores of the beautiful Lake of Thun; and during his stay amongst the Alps made excursions over the passes, knapsack on back, and alpen stock in hand. Whilst engaged on a trip of this kind, the news of the July revolution in Paris reached him; and when it was known that Louis Philippe had become king, he and family at once applied to be permitted to return to France, but were refused. Louis wrote to the new King of the French, and begged for permission to serve as a common soldier in the French army. The French government answered his petition by a renewal of the decree of his

banishment. Disappointed in his expectations, and a second time exiled, Louis entertained hopes of another revolution in France. But his brother and the King of Rome were both still living, and the young man of twenty-two formed no definite plan of preferring claims in opposition to those of the younger branch of the Bourbon dynasty. In the beginning of 1831 the two brothers left Switzerland, and settled in Tuscany. They both took part in the insurrection at Rome. The elder brother died at Forli, March 17th, 1831. Louis accomplished a dangerous flight through Italy and France to England, where he remained a short time, and then retired to the Castle of Arenenberg, in Thurgau. A part of his leisure in the years 1832–35 was devoted to the publication of some books. The first appeared under the title of "Reveries politiques," in which he declares his belief that France can be regenerated only by means of one of Napoleon's descendants, as they alone can reconcile republican principles with the demands of the military spirit of the nation. Within a year or two after the publication of this work, he issued two others: "Considérations politiques et militaires sur la Suisse," and "Manuel sur l'Artillerie." The latter is a work of considerable size, containing five hundred pages, with sixty lithographs. It was favourably reviewed in the military journals of the day. In the years 1831–32, when the throne of Louis Philippe was still unsteady, a party in France had their eyes fixed on the Duc de Reichstadt. According to French statements a great part of the army was, in 1832, ready to acknowledge Napoleon II. as soon as he should appear on the frontier. A whole corps, generals and colonels included, expected him; and they had even determined, if the ex-king of Rome did not appear himself, to receive his cousin. The early death of the Duc de Reichstadt (King of Rome), July 22d, 1832, frustrated these plans. Louis Napoleon, his brothers being now dead, was the legal heir of the imperial family, and succeeded to his cousin's claims, and is said to have been buoyed up in hopes of obtaining power in France by the conversations of Chateaubriand and other notables of the time. His designs upon the throne of France became evident in the early part of the year 1835. In 1836 his plans were ripe for an attack on the fortress of Strasbourg. This town, with its strong garrison, *its associations* with Bonaparte, and a population not

very well affected to the actual government, seemed a favourable point for the first attack. In case of success there, Louis intended to march the next day towards Paris, to rouse and arm the intermediate provinces, to take with him the garrisons of Alsace and Lothringen, and, if possible, to reach the metropolis before the government could take any active measures against him. In June 1836, Louis Napoleon left Arenenberg, and went to Baden-Baden, where he saw several officers of Alsace and Lothringen, and gained over to his party Colonel Vaudrey, commander of artillery in the garrison of Strasbourg. In August he secretly went to that city, and there had an interview with fifteen officers, who promised him their assistance and co-operation. He then returned into Switzerland, leaving the further arrangements for the insurrection to some of his adherents. The affair there, which failed so miserably, is thus told by an American writer, who gives the version as having been communicated by Louis Napoleon himself. Louis introduced himself into the city, — his partizans were ready, — and thus tells the rest:—"At five o'clock on the morning of the 30th of October the signal was given in the Austerlitz barracks. At the sound of the trumpets the soldiers were aroused, and seizing their muskets and swords, they hurried impetuously down into the court-yard. They were drawn up in double line around it, and Colonel Vaudrey took his post in the centre. A short pause ensued awaiting my arrival, and a dead silence was preserved. On my appearance I was immediately presented to the troops in a few eloquent words from their colonel. 'Soldiers,' he said, 'a great revolution begins at this moment. The nephew of the Emperor is before you. He comes to put himself at your head. He is arrived on the French soil to restore to France her glory and her liberty. It is now to conquer or to die for a great cause—the *cause of the people*. Soldiers of the 4th regiment of Artillery, may the Emperor's nephew count on you?' The shout which followed this brief appeal nearly stunned me. Men and officers alike abandoned themselves to the wildest enthusiasm. Flourishing their arms with furious energy, they filled the air with cries of '*Vive l'Empereur!*' If misgivings had ever crossed me of the fidelity of the French heart to the memory of Napoleon, they vanished for ever before the *suddenness and fierceness* of that demonstration. The

chord was scarcely touched and the vibration was terrific. I was deeply moved, and nearly lost my self-possession. In a few moments I waved my hand, signifying my desire to speak. Breathless silence ensued. 'Soldiers,' I said, 'it was in your regiment the Emperor Napoleon, my uncle, first saw service; with you he distinguished himself at Toulon; it was your brave regiment that opened the gates of Grenoble to him, on his return from the Isle of Elba. Soldiers, new destinies are reserved to you. Here,' I continued, taking the standard of the eagle from an officer near me — 'here is the symbol of French glory; it must become henceforth the symbol of liberty.' The effect of these simple words was indescribable; but the time for action had come. I gave the word to fall into column; the music struck up — and putting myself at their head, the regiment followed me to a man. Meanwhile my adherents had been active elsewhere, and uniformly successful. Lieutenant Laity, on presenting himself, was immediately joined by the corps of engineers. The telegraph was seized without a struggle. The cannoneers commanded by M. Parquin had arrested the prefect. Every moment fresh tidings reached me of the success of the different movements that had been previously concerted. I kept steadily on my way at the head of the 4th regiment to the Finkmatt barracks, where I hoped to find the infantry ready to welcome me. Passing by the headquarters where resided the commander-in-chief of the department of the Bas Rhin, Lieut.-Gen. Voirol, I halted, and was enthusiastically saluted by his guard with the cry of *Vive l'Empereur!* I made my way to the apartments of the general, where a brief interview took place. On leaving, I thought it necessary to give him notice that he was my prisoner, and a small detachment was assigned to this duty. From his quarters I proceeded rapidly to the Finkmatt barracks, and although it was early in the morning, the populace were drawn out by the noise, and mingling their acclamations with those of the soldiers, they joined our *cortège* in crowds. An unlooked-for error here occurred which had a most deplorable effect on the whole enterprise, which had thus far gone on so swimmingly. We had reached the Faubourg de Pierre, when, being on foot, the head of the column lost sight of me, and instead of following the route agreed on, *and proceeding* at once to the ramparts, they

entered a narrow lane that led direct to the barracks. Amid the noise and confusion it was impossible to retrieve this mischance, and I took hurriedly what measures I could to provide against its worst consequences. Fearing a possible attack on my rear, I was compelled to leave a half of the regiment in the main street we had left, and hastening forward, I entered the court-yard of the infantry barracks with my officers and some four hundred men. I expected to find the regiment assembled, but the messenger entrusted with the news of my approach was prevented by some accident from reaching in time, and I found all the soldiers in their rooms occupied in preparing themselves for the Sunday's inspection. Attracted, however, by the noise, they ran to the windows, where I harangued them, and on hearing the name of Napoleon pronounced they rushed headlong down, thronged around me, and testified by a thousand marks of devotion their enthusiasm for my cause. The battalion of the *pontonniers* and the 3rd regiment of Artillery, with Messrs. Poggi and Conard and a great number of officers at their head, were all in movement and on their way to join me, and word was brought they were only a square off. In another moment I would have found myself at the head of five thousand men, with the people of the town everywhere in my favour, when of a sudden at one end of the court-yard a disturbance arose without those at the other extremity being able to divine the cause. Colonel Taillandier had just arrived, and on being told that the Emperor's nephew was there with the 4th regiment, he could not believe such extraordinary intelligence, and his surprise was so great that he preferred attributing it to a vulgar ambition on the part of Colonel Vaudrey rather than to credit this unexpected resurrection of a great cause. 'Soldiers,' he exclaimed, 'you are deceived; the man who excites your enthusiasm can only be an adventurer and an impostor.' An officer of his staff cried out at the same time, 'It is not the Emperor's nephew; it is the nephew of Colonel Vaudrey: I know him.' Absurd as was this announcement, it flew like lightning from mouth to mouth, and began to change the disposition of this regiment, which a moment before had been so favourable. Great numbers of the soldiers, believing themselves the dupes of an unworthy deception, became furious. Colonel Taillandier assembled them, caused the

gates to be closed, and the drums to strike; while on the other hand the officers devoted to me gave orders to have the *générale* beaten to bring forward the soldiers who had embraced my cause. The space we occupied was so confined that the regiments became, as it were, confounded together, and the tumult was frightful. From moment to moment the confusion increased, and the officers of the same cause no longer recognised each other, as they all wore the same uniform. The cannoneers arrested infantry officers, and the infantry in their turn laid hold of some officers of artillery. Muskets were charged, and bayonets and sabres flashed in the air, but no blow was struck, as each feared to wound a friend. A single word from myself, or Colonel Taillandier, would have led to a regular massacre. The officers around me repeatedly offered to hew me a passage through the infantry, which could have been easily effected, but I would not consent to shed French blood in my own cause; besides, I could not believe that the 46th regiment, which a moment previously had manifested so much sympathy, could have so promptly changed their sentiments. At any risk I determined to make an effort to recover my influence over it, and I suddenly rushed into their very midst; but in a minute I was surrounded by a triple row of bayonets, and forced to draw my sabre to parry off the blows aimed at me from every side. In another instant I should have perished by French hands, when the cannoneers perceiving my danger, charged, and carrying me off, placed me in their ranks. Unfortunately, this movement separated me from my officers, and threw me amongst soldiers who doubted my identity. Another struggle ensued, and in a few minutes I was a prisoner." Such is the story of Louis Napoleon himself. He was detained a prisoner in Strasbourg, from October 30th till November 9th. He was then conducted to Paris, where he saw only the prefect of police, who informed him, that on the first intelligence of his capture his mother had come into the vicinity of Paris, to try to obtain his pardon and save his life, or to excite sympathy for him. His life was spared, but he was told at the same time that he was to be sent to the United States. He protested against this, but in vain; and he was accordingly landed in America, where, however, he did not long remain, but returned to Switzerland, where he found his mother on her

death-bed. In 1838, Lieut. Laity published, with the sanction of Louis Napoleon, a favourable account of the affair at Strasbourg, and was, in consequence, sentenced to five years' imprisonment, and to pay a fine of 10,000 francs. These circumstances, which were regarded by the government as the commencement of a new conspiracy at Arenenberg, induced them to demand that Louis should be banished from Switzerland. Some of the cantons seemed inclined to maintain their independence and Louis' rights as a citizen of Thurgau. On this France sent an army to the frontier, and threatened to support her demands, if necessary, by force. The ambassadors of the principal European powers signified their concurrence in the proceedings of the French government, and under these circumstances, Louis Napoleon thought it advisable to leave Switzerland, and take refuge in England. At the end of the year 1838 he took up his residence in London, and in 1839 he published a work entitled "Des Idées Napoliennes." In 1840 he resolved on a new attempt on the French crown. He hired an English steamer, called the City of Edinburgh, in London, and embarking with Count Montholon, General Voision, and fifty-three other persons, on board, besides a tame eagle, they, on Thursday, the 6th of August, landed near Boulogne. They marched into the town about five o'clock in the morning, and traversed the streets, shouting "*Vive l'Empereur!*" The first attempt they made was at the guard-house, where they summoned the troops to surrender, or join with them. The only man who did so, was a young lieutenant of the 42d, who tried to induce the soldiers to accompany the Prince. He, however, failed in the attempt; and as the National Guard soon beat to arms, and began to muster in force, Prince Louis retreated with his followers out of the town towards the pillar on the height above Boulogne, and there he planted a flag, with a golden eagle at the top of the staff. Finding, however, that he was hard pressed with unequal numbers, he retreated to the beach, and was captured in attempting to escape to the steamer. His followers were also taken; but one unfortunate man was shot while struggling in the waves. Prince Louis, with Count Montholon, General Voision, and others, were soon conveyed prisoners to Paris, where they were tried before the Chamber of Peers, on the charge of high treason. When the Prince landed, he had immediately scat-

tered printed papers, addressed to the French nation, in which he commenced by saying that the Bourbon dynasty had ceased to reign, and that he appointed M. Thiers President of the Council, and Marshal Clausel Minister of War. The trial of the Prince and his followers took place at the beginning of October, before upwards of 160 of the Peers of France, many of whom owed their elevation to his uncle, the Emperor Napoleon. M. Berryer appeared as counsel for the Prince and Count Montholon, and made a clever defence, but in vain. The former was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment in a fortress in France; the latter, with three others, to twenty years' *détention*, and the others to various terms of imprisonment. The lieutenant who had proved traitor at Boulogne was condemned to transportation. The Prince was afterwards conveyed prisoner to the citadel of Ham, where, some years before, the members of the Polignac administration had been confined after the Revolution of July. On the 25th of May, 1846, he made his escape from the fortress, where he had been confined a prisoner for six years. He effected his exit from the castle by assuming, as a disguise, the dress of a workman, and thus deceiving the vigilance of the guards. He immediately crossed the frontier into Belgium, and then took refuge in England, where he resided until the Paris Revolution of 1848, when he was elected a Representative in the National Assembly, and subsequently President of the French Republic. Arrived at this hazardous position, he sought to strengthen his hold on the French by reviving, whenever opportunity offered, the most agreeable souvenirs of his uncle's rule; while, at the same time, he incessantly disavowed all ambitious sentiments, and complained of the suspicion of them as an injury. He made a pilgrimage to Ham, and in the neighbourhood of his former prison expressed his repentance of the attempts of Strasbourg and Boulogne. Having thus combated the preparations which a few Constitutionalists were inclined to make against a possible *coup d'état*, he played with the Parliament until December 2d, on the morning of which day, before sunrise, he swept into prison every statesman in Paris known for public spirit and ability, dissolved the Assembly, seized the most distinguished generals, and proclaimed himself dictator. A number of

African officers, with picked regiments, were sent into the streets to shoot down remorselessly all who should raise an arm for the Constitution; and so, having by the aid of 100,000 soldiers completely subdued the capital, and possessed himself of all power, he offered himself to France for ten years' election to the office of President, with constitutive power. As no other candidate was allowed to come forward, he was of course returned, and has since proclaimed a pretended constitution, which gave him more power than any monarch, except the Czar, pretends to exercise. He appoints the senators and the council of state, pays such of the members of the former as he thinks fit, and even nominates the candidates for election to the legislative body. The ministry is responsible only to him; he commands the land and sea forces, and can declare war or the state of siege on his own authority.

BORDEAUX, DUC DE, COMTE DE CHAMBORD, the representative of the elder branch of the Bourbon family, and by them and their supporters styled Henry the Fifth, king of France, was born September 29, 1820; married, November 7, 1846, to the Archduchess Marie-Thérèse-Béatrix Gaëtane, daughter of Duke Francis IV. of Modena. A French gentleman, M. Didier, who visited him at the castle of Frohsdorf, in Austria, in 1849, thus sums up his character:—"Either I am very much deceived, or the Duc de Bordeaux is deficient in initiative power, and probably deficient in resolution. His mind is cultivated rather than inventive, he conceives rather than creates, and takes in more than he gives out. From his education, and from his nature, indolence in him prevails over the power of execution. In a word—and perhaps it is fortunate for his repose—he appears to me more suited to expectation than to action." He inherits the indolence, and with it the corpulence, of his race.

BOUSSINGAULT, M., Member of the National Assembly of France, and of the French Institute, is known much better in the world of science than politics. When the Revolution of 1848 gave universal suffrage to Frenchmen, Boussingault was elected member for the Bas-Rhin. He is the author of

many works, but most value is attached to his disquisitions on the application of chemistry to agriculture.

BOWRING, JOHN, LL.D., a Philologist, Poet, Political Writer, and Placeman, was born 1792. He early displayed great industry, and remarkable power of learning languages. In his young days he was patronised by Jeremy Bentham, whose political pupil he became; and when the "Westminster Review" was carrying on its literary war in support of the principles of that Thinker, Bowring acted for some years as the editor of the publication. His literary reputation, however, is based rather on his poetical than his political writings, he having given the English public a number of pleasant versions of the poetical literature of various races, of whom very little was before known. Songs and other productions in Russian, Servian, Polish, Magyar, Danish, Swedish, Fresian, Dutch, Esthonean, Spanish, Portuguese, and Icelandic, found an agreeable interpreter in Doctor Bowring, whose philological lore, unlike that of most scholars, was not a mere dry, barren acquisition, but was made to produce much public gratification and applause. The Doctor's industry must be very great, for besides mastering these varied tongues, and writing about them and other things, he was an active politician of the democratic school, speaking in parliament and at public meetings; and, under Earl Grey's government, he acted with Sir Henry Parnell as a commissioner for investigating the public accounts. He was the colleague, also, of Mr. Villiers as commercial commissioner to France, to arrange a treaty with our Gallic neighbours. The Whig government, some time since, rewarded his labours, and got rid of his democratic speeches, by appointing him to a rather lucrative post at Hong Kong. To live in such a place must be a kind of honourable transportation to a man of literary tastes; but the Doctor, like most men of letters, was not rich, and, having a family, accepted the post. We may hope on his return for a host of Chinese revelations. We must not fail to add that Dr. Bowring was the literary executor of Jeremy Bentham, and has written a life of his deceased patron, more distinguished by elaboration than vigour.

BRANDE, *WILLIAM* THOMAS, Experimental Chemist.

and Lecturer, and writer on chemical subjects, born 1780, was long the assistant of Sir Humphry Davy, whom he succeeded in the professorial chair at the Royal Institution. His chief works are "Outlines of Geology" and "A Manual of Chemistry;" both noticeable rather for careful statement of what has been done by others than for any display of original research or brilliant genius.

BRAZIL, PEDRO, the second Emperor of, born Dec. 2, 1825, mounted the throne April 7, 1831, on the abdication of his father, Pedro the First; took the reins of government July 23, 1840; married, July 18, 1841, Theresa, daughter of the King of the Two Sicilies, and has two daughters. His sister is Queen of Portugal.

BREWSTER, SIR DAVID, an Experimental Philosopher and Public Writer, was born at Jedburgh, December 11, 1781, and is one of a family of brothers, who have all attained distinction. He was educated and licensed for the Church of Scotland, but his first essay in the pulpit was so decided a failure that he resolved never to repeat it. He now betook himself to science and literature; and whilst he wrought for the improvement of the first — particularly the science of optics — he gained an income chiefly by the latter. Having at first laboured upon works projected by others, he, in 1824, set up a journal for himself,—the "Edinburgh Journal of Science," and long conducted it with success. He was the editor of the "Edinburgh Encyclopædia," which became under his hand one of the earliest and best productions of its class. Having improved his social position by his connexion with this undertaking, he became president of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, in which city he resided, until purchasing an estate at Allerly, near Melrose, he removed about 1828, and three years afterwards proposed the meeting at York which led to the establishment of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. Besides a number of pamphlets descriptive of his discoveries and inventions, among the latter of which the kaleidoscope is to be reckoned, he has produced a "Life of Newton," "Letters to Sir Walter Scott on Natural Magic," and the "Martyrs of Science." He is also understood to be a contributor to the "*North British Review*." He is a leading member of the

Free Church of Scotland, and of the Peace Society; belongs to a great number of learned bodies, and received the honour of knighthood from William IV. France has not left this British *savant* unnoticed, having elected him a corresponding member of the Institute in 1825, and in 1849 one of the eight Foreign Associate members, in the place made vacant by the death of Berzelius, the celebrated chemist. Sir D. Brewster is now Principal of the united Colleges of St. Salvador and St. Leonard's, in the Scotch University of St. Andrew's.

BRIGHT, JOHN, a member of the democratic party in the House of Commons, an active supporter of the repeal of the Corn-laws, and a Lancashire mill-owner, was born in 1811. John Bright belongs to the Society of Friends, but does not indulge in all the eccentricities of that sect. He is evidently a man of vigorous purpose, and usually speaks well, and always with much daring. He advocates the extension of education and of the suffrage, and generally all changes calculated to increase the power of the people in its operation on government. He contested the cathedral city of Durham in 1843, against Lord Dungannon, when the latter was returned by only a small majority, but was unseated on petition. Again contested the same city in 1843, against Mr. Purvis, and was returned. Both contests were paid for by subscriptions raised by the Free-traders, of whose party Mr. Bright was at the time a popular champion. Mr. Bright now sits for Manchester. He is a partner in the firm John Bright, Brothers, Rochdale. He has been twice married.

BRODIE, SIR BENJAMIN COLLINS, Bart., Surgeon and Surgical Writer, son of a Wiltshire clergyman, was born 1783, and studying under Sir Everard Home, worked hard, and became that surgeon's successor at St. George's Hospital, and ultimately at the College of Surgeons. Sir B. Brodie is serjeant-surgeon to the Queen; he held a like appointment under two previous monarchs. His profession is said to produce him 10,000*l.* a-year; but he has found time to contribute one or two practical books to the literature of his profession.

BROOKE, RAJAH SIR JAMES, is a Somersetshire

man, born on the 29th of April, 1803, at Combe Grove, near Bath. His father was engaged in the civil service of the East India Company; and when of sufficient age, the future Rajah was sent to India as a cadet, and, on the Burmese war breaking out, went to the scene of operations; entered upon active military service; and whilst storming a stockade, received a bullet in his chest. This wound kept him for a while balanced between life and death, but a strong constitution stood him in good stead, and he was able to reach England on furlough, to seek the full restoration of his health. When sufficiently strong he set out on a tour through France, Switzerland, and Italy, the languages, as well as manners and condition, of which he studied; but the longest leave of absence will expire at last, and we find our hero, in due course, again setting out for the East; failing, however, to reach it at once, for the ship in which he sailed was wrecked on the Isle of Wight. In his next vessel he was more fortunate, and safely reached India to resume his duties; but finding a long official correspondence requisite to explain why a shipwreck should have delayed an officer's return, he resigned the service of the East India Company, and in 1830 sailed from Calcutta for China. "In this voyage," says Capt. Keppel, in his "Expedition to Borneo," "while going up the China seas, he saw for the first time the islands of the Asiatic Archipelago — islands of vast importance and unparalleled beauty — lying neglected and almost unknown. He inquired and read, and became convinced that Borneo and the Eastern Isles afforded an open field for enterprise and research. To carry to the Malay races, so long the terror of the European merchant-vessel, the blessings of civilisation, to suppress piracy, and extirpate the slave-trade, became his humane and generous objects; and from that hour the energies of his powerful mind were devoted to this one pursuit. Often foiled — often disappointed, with a perseverance and enthusiasm which defied all obstacle, he was not until 1838 enabled to set sail from England on his darling project. The intervening years had been devoted to preparation and inquiry — a year spent in the Mediterranean had tested his vessel, the 'Royalist,' and his crew — and so completely had he studied his subject and calculated on contingencies, that the least sanguine of his friends felt as he left the shore, *hazardous and unusual* as the enterprise appeared to be,

that he had omitted nothing to insure a successful issue. 'I go,' said he, 'to awake the spirit of slumbering philanthropy with regard to these islands; to carry Sir Stamford Raffles' views in Java over the whole Archipelago. Fortune and life I give freely; and if I fail in the attempt, I shall not have lived wholly in vain.'" The death of his father had placed a fair fortune at his disposal, and buying a yacht, he tried its qualities and the temper of his crew by a year's cruise in the Mediterranean. It was a great and gallant ambition to set out to extend English dominion in the East; and the "croakers" who heard that "Brooke of the Royal Yacht Squadron had sailed with a crew of about twenty men in search of pirates and adventures in the Eastern seas," smiled wisely, and indulged in sundry allusions to Don Quixote; but when the news came home that he had truly engaged in the suppression of the Malay sea-robbers, and had been rewarded by the cession to him, by a grateful native prince, of the territory and governorship of Sarawak — a tract embracing about 3000 square miles of country, with a sea-board of about fifty miles — said croakers began to think the adventurous undertaking not so wild after all. The steps by which he became Rajah of Sarawak may be here recounted. When in his vessel, the "Royalist," he reached the coast of that country, he found its ruler engaged in the suppression of one of the rebellions frequent in uncivilised regions. His aid was solicited by the Rajah Muda Hassim, and that aid being given, secured the triumph of the authorities. Muda being soon afterwards called by the Sultan to the post of prime-minister, suggested the making the English captain his successor at Sarawak — a step eventually taken. The newly-acquired territory was swampy and ill-cultivated by the native Dyaks, who varied their occupations, as tillers of the land, by excursions amongst neighbouring villages *in search of heads*. To rob the native of a neighbouring town of his cranium was regarded in much the same light as the capture of a scalp would be amongst North American savages. Brooke saw at once that no improvement could arise whilst murder was regarded not only as a pleasant amusement, but to some extent as a religious duty. He declared head-hunting a crime punishable by death to the offender. With some trouble and much risk he succeeded to a great extent in effecting a reform. Attacking at the same time another

custom of the country — that of piracy — he acted with such vigour, that a class of well-meaning people at home, stimulated to some extent by the private enemies of Brooke, accused him of wholesale butchery. The fact that the destruction of pirates was rewarded by the English executive by the payment of what was called "head-money," justly increased the outcry. To kill one pirate entitled the crew of a ship-of-war to a certain prize in money — to kill a thousand entitled them to a thousand times the amount. This premium on blood was wrong in principle, and the result of a wholesale slaughter of Eastern pirates by order of Brooke, led to the very proper abolition of the custom of paying this "head-money." The men who are entitled to the praise of securing this amelioration of our naval system were not, however, content with the triumph of the just portion of their case; they sought to brand the Rajah as a cruel and greedy adventurer: in which attempt they fortunately failed. It is surely unjust to test the acts of a man living and ruling amongst savages by the strict usages of action acknowledged and found most proper for guidance in civilised communities. When, after his first appointment, Rajah Brooke returned to see his friends, and to take counsel in England, he was welcomed very warmly. He was made Knight of the Bath; invited to dine with the Queen; found his portrait in the print-shops, and his biography in the magazines and newspapers. The Government recognised his position; ordered a man-of-war to take him to the seat of his new settlement; gave him the title of Governor of Labuan, with a salary of 2000*l.* a-year, with an extra 500*l.* a-year as a consular agent, and afforded him the services of a deputy-governor, also on a good salary, — the hope being that the result of all this would be the opening of a new emporium for British trade. The Rajah is said to enjoy, in addition to his pay, a source of income arising from the sale of the antimony found in his new dominions.

BROOKS, SHIRLEY, Author of some of the liveliest of recent dramatic trifles, and of many contributions to newspapers and magazines, born 1816, gave up, soon after commencing it, the profession of law for that of literature and journalism. It is as a dramatist, however, that Mr. *Brooks is best known.* He began during the Keeley manage-

ment of the Lyceum with a little piece called "The Lowther Arcade;" after which followed "Our New Governess," an irregularly constructed, but amusing three-act comedy, instinct with fun and character, and which has frequently been revived; "Honours and Riches," also a lively three-act piece; and "The Creole," one of the best knit and interesting serious dramas of late date. At present Mr. Brooks draws up the summary of the parliamentary debates for the "Morning Chronicle;" contributes to its literary columns, and was the "Commissioner" despatched to Southern Russia, Turkey, and Egypt, by that journal, in the prosecution of its inquiry into foreign as well as British "Labour and the Poor."

BROUGHAM, HENRY LORD, Philosopher, Law Reformer, Statesman, and Critic, has, in these various characters, drawn upon himself, perhaps, more public attention than any man of his times. Few men have less need of the recommendations of ancient birth than Lord Brougham; but as many fabulous accounts of his descent are in circulation, a glance at the fortunes of the house may not be out of place. The ancestors of Lord Brougham were Saxon, and held their burg, or castle of Burgham, corrupted to Brougham, at the Roman station, called by Antoninus, in his "Itinerary," Brovacum, and which lies in the great Roman way leading from Appleby to Penrith, and at the northern extremity of the parish of Brougham. In the reign of King John, Gilbert de Burgham alienated the castle and one-third part of his patrimonial estate to Robert de Veteripont, first hereditary high sheriff of the county of Westmoreland, on condition that he and his heirs for ever might hold the remainder of the estate free from drengage, a service imposed by the Norman conquerors upon all the Saxons who were powerful enough to make terms with them. Brougham Castle afterwards came, by marriage, into the powerful family of the Cliffords, and from them it descended, through the celebrated Countess of Pembroke, to the late Earl of Thanet. Thomas Brougham, of Brougham, dying without issue, temp. James I., the manor and estate were sold to one Bird, steward of the Thanet family; and towards the end of the reign of Charles II. were purchased back again by John Brougham,

of Scales Hall, heir male of Thomas, who, entailing the estates of Brougham and Scales upon his issue male, they became the property of the ex-chancellor. Mr. Henry Brougham, father of his lordship, was educated at Eton, and distinguished himself there as a classical scholar; his verses may be found in the "Musæ Etonenses." He was entered at Gray's Inn, and appears to have kept some terms, but was never called to the bar. While travelling in Edinburgh he became acquainted with Miss Eleanor Syme, niece to Robertson the historian, and having married that lady, took up his abode in the house of the Earl of Buchan, No. 19 St. Andrew's Square, where the subject of this sketch was born. The young Henry received his preliminary education at the High School of his native city, and at the early age of fifteen entered its university. He devoted himself with great ardour to the study of mathematics, and in about a year after his matriculation, transmitted to the Royal Society a paper on an optical subject, which that learned body adjudged worthy of a place in its "Transactions." This paper was succeeded by others, the brilliant originality of which touched the sensibilities of some foreign professors, with whom Brougham was speedily involved in a Latin correspondence. After leaving the university, he made a tour in Holland and Prussia, and on his return settled down for a time in Edinburgh, practising, till 1807, at the Scottish bar, and enlivening his leisure by debating at the celebrated Speculative Society. While thus nerving himself for greater efforts, he was called to appear before the House of Lords as one of the counsel for Lady Essex Ker, whose family laid claim to the dukedom of Roxburgh. In 1807 he permanently left his native city, was shortly called to the bar by the Society of Lincoln's Inn, and soon acquired a considerable practice. In 1810 he addressed the House of Lords for two days as counsel for a body of English merchants, who were aggrieved by the orders in council issued in retaliation of Napoleon's Berlin and Milan decrees. The damage done to commerce by insisting upon the validity of a mere paper blockade, which only the loyal observed, was insisted on with all the force of Mr. Brougham's vehement oratory, but the orders were not rescinded until after the minister, Mr. Perceval's, death. In 1810 he entered Parliament for the borough of Camelford, then under the

influence of the Earl of Darlington, and attached himself to the Whig opposition. Here his energies were directed chiefly to the Slavery question, in conjunction with Clarkson, Wilberforce, and Grenville Sharpe. In 1812 Parliament was dissolved, and on contesting Liverpool with Mr. Canning he lost the election, an event which excluded him from Parliament for four years, during which the lately repealed corn-laws were enacted. In 1816 the Earl of Darlington's influence was again employed to procure him a seat in Parliament, this time for the borough of Winchelsea. It has been remarked that the facility of this mode of translation to the legislature, compared with the difficulties and uncertainties of popular contests, made Brougham desirous to retain a few rotten Parliamentary boroughs. He now gallantly opposed the dragooning policy pursued by ministers towards the thousands of hungry men and women who met at Manchester and elsewhere to protest against the starvation laws lately enacted; but the Six Acts passed, and the voice of discontent was for the moment stifled. In 1820 an event took place which was to put Mr. Brougham in a position more conspicuous, and by far more popular, than he had yet occupied. The arrival in England of Caroline of Brunswick to claim the crown which was the right of the King of England's wife, led to the well-known proceedings before the House of Lords. During the troubles which befell the unhappy lady while Princess of Wales, Mr. Brougham had been her adviser; and now, appointed her Majesty's Attorney-General, it was for him to vindicate her before the highest court of the realm. The occasion was in the highest degree favourable to his audacious oratory. His feats of mere physical endurance, or power, would be marvellous, were they not surpassed by Titanic intellectual exertions, by a display of judgment, courage, and force, such as had, perhaps, never been exhibited before that tribunal,—certainly not in the same century. In the end the object of the king was defeated, and Mr. Brougham became a popular idol. In 1820 he introduced a bill to provide gratuitous education for the poor of England and Wales, the provisions of which have not yet ceased to excite discussion, from the general power they were designed to give to the clergyman of every parish in the direction of free education. Mr. Brougham's

relations to the clergy assumed a very different aspect in the following year, when he was called to defend Ambrose Williams, proprietor of the "Durham Chronicle," in an action of libel brought by the ministers of the Established Church in that city, for an article on their refusal to allow the church bells to be tolled for the death of Caroline. In his memorable speech on that occasion he brought the bitterest irony, and the most cutting gibes, to the task of aggravating the luxury, profusion, and worldliness of the hierarchy. If Williams had been innocent of the libel, to have procured the delivery of this terrible speech in a snug cathedral town would have been enough to secure his condemnation: the verdict went against him, but he was never called up to receive judgment. Two years later, the facility of language and power of invective, which had so often won him plaudits, was near bringing him into a position personally and extremely unpleasant. Believing when Mr. Canning took office, in the spring of 1823, that he had resolved to sacrifice the cause of Catholic Emancipation, which he had always maintained in words, Mr. Brougham accused him in the House, on the 17th of April, of the "most monstrous truckling for office that the whole history of political tergiversation could present." At the sound of these words, Canning started to his feet, and cried, "It is false!" A dead calm ensued, which lasted some seconds. The Speaker interposed his authority, the words were retracted, with the aid of friends the quarrel was composed, and both gentlemen were declared to have acted magnanimously, as they shortly after shook hands in the House. From this period until the Reform crisis of 1830, Mr. Brougham laboured energetically and fearlessly in the cause of freedom and the rights of conscience; whether these were represented for the hour by the case of Smith of Demerara, the disfranchised Catholics of Ireland, or the victims of the Holy Alliance. In the struggle of 1829, which ended in the Emancipation Act, he bore an honourable part; and in supporting the Wellington and Peel cabinet on this question increased still more his popularity. He was member for Knaresborough, when the death of George IV. occasioned a general election, and he had sufficient confidence in public opinion to offer himself to the constituency of the great county of York, a body whose favours

it had been the custom to believe were not to be accorded to any candidate not boasting high birth or splendid connexions. He was triumphantly returned to Parliament, and took his seat the acknowledged chief of the Liberal party in the House of Commons. Flushed with success, he vigorously attacked the cabinet, and while indignantly alluding to the Duke of Wellington's imprudent declaration against all reform, he exclaimed, pointing to Sir Robert Peel, "Him we scorn not — it is you we scorn; you, his mean, base, fawning parasite!" The calm and ordinarily imperturbable baronet leaped from his seat, and in his most contemptuous manner angrily declared that he was the parasite of no man living. The scene which followed was terminated in the usual parliamentary manner. The Tory ministry was very shortly compelled to resign. In the new Whig cabinet which was to succeed, it was naturally expected that Brougham would find a place; the country was, therefore, somewhat mystified by several eager and uncalled-for declarations on his part that, under no circumstances would he take office, and particularly by his notice in the House, that he would bring on his reform motion whoever might be in power. It was asserted by his enemies that he was standing out for terms. His name, however, appeared duly in the ministerial list, and great was the astonishment of Whigs and Tories that the tribune of the people had become at once a lord and a chancellor. The appointment was attacked with vigour by Mr. Croker, and as heartily defended by Sir James Macintosh and Mr. Macaulay. In the Upper House his appearance was dreaded as the spectre of revolution. For a long time his lordship took no pains to conciliate these fears, but rather seemed to wanton in the indulgence of an oratory so strange as his to the floor of the House of Lords. In the debates on the Reform Bill he found many opportunities of inveighing against prescription to an audience every member of which sat in his place by hereditary privilege, and it was with peculiar unction he told them more than once that the aristocracy, with all their castles, manors, rights of warren and rights of chase, and their broad acres, reckoned at fifty years' purchase, "were not for a moment to be weighed against the middle classes of England." This declaration is the key to his political career; it was the

power of the middle classes rather than the multitude that he sought to raise. During, and after the passing of the Reform Bill, he exerted himself to realise a favourite idea of law reform, which has since found its nearest expression in the County Courts now established. In June 1830, he introduced a measure, the declared object of which was to bring justice home to every man's door at all times of the year, by the establishment of local courts. By this bill the law of arbitration was to be extended, a general local jurisdiction established, and courts of reconcilement were to be introduced. A succession of bills for reforming proceedings in bankruptcy were afterwards introduced by Brougham, who, from his accession to the House of Lords to the last session of Parliament, has laboured for the improvement of the law with a zeal almost reaching enthusiasm. From 1830 to 1834, he shared the early popularity and subsequent discredit of the Whig cabinet, but in the Poor-law debate drew upon himself a peculiar measure of reprobation by a frequent, minute, and evidently complacent iteration of the Malthusian doctrines embodied in the new bill, and was attacked with vigour and virulence by "The Times." He denounced in the most explicit terms all establishments offering a refuge and solace to old age, because that is before all men; he thought accidentwards very well; dispensaries, perhaps, might be tolerable; but sick hospitals were decidedly bad institutions. The energetic repressive policy pursued towards Ireland, and the prosecution and transportation of the Dorchester labourers, were defended by Brougham, and drew down much unpopularity upon the Whigs; and on the 4th of November, 1834, upon the death of Earl Spencer, the king took advantage of the altered public feeling to dismiss the Whig cabinet. On the construction of the Melbourne cabinet Brougham was left out of the ministerial combination, and has never since served the crown in the capacity of an adviser. His parliamentary career was henceforth one of desultory warfare; at one moment he was carrying confusion into the ranks of his old friends, the Whigs, — at another, attacking the close Tory phalanx. He several times brought forward the subject of the Corn-laws, whose iniquity he exposed with great power and fervency, and fought the battle of repeal with eagerness and irregularity to the last. The session of 1850

exhibited his lordship as the same eccentric, inscrutable speaker as ever. He both supported and attacked the Exhibition, deprecated the Commission of Inquiry into the state of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and attacked with almost wild fury those who were seeking to abolish expensive sinecure appointments. Inconsistency is the first feature in this statesman's character, which the brilliancy of his talents only makes more apparent. He has written to depreciate the negro's capacity of civilisation, and yet toiled for years to procure his freedom. In 1816 he endorsed the Protectionist fallacy, and wailed over the ruin resulting to agriculture from an abundant harvest; in 1835 he was opposing the Corn-laws, and in 1845 again inveighing against the League, and calling for the prosecution of its chief members. In 1823 he hurled the thunder of his eloquence upon Austria and Russia, "the eternal and implacable enemies of freedom," and in 1850 was praising their clemency, and even urging an alliance with the Czar. He is now the champion of aristocracies, but in 1848 sought to become a citizen of republican France. His literary and scientific labours can only be lightly sketched. Having, as we have seen, in boyhood enrolled his name with the *élite* of scientific writers, in 1802 he became a contributor to the "Edinburgh Review," then just started by Jeffrey and Smith, and continued for many years some of the most pungent criticisms in that renowned work. In 1803 he published his treatise on the Colonial Policy of the European Powers, a brilliant performance, to which the progress of events has left but one utility, that of a waymark in the developement of Brougham's opinions. In 1821 he took a very prominent part in the movement originated by Dr. Birkbeck for naturalising the Mechanics' Institutes in England, speaking and writing in their favour. He was the principal founder of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and composed several of the treatises in the series, as well as articles for its "Penny Magazine," with a special view to the wants of the million. On his loss of office in 1834 he bethought himself of making a reputation in metaphysical as well as natural science, and undertook to illustrate and expand Paley's great work on Natural Theology, with less success than his talents had justified the world in expecting. He

has further published "Lives of the Statesmen of the Reign of George III.," in which the affected dignity of the style is not sustained by the excellence of the matter; and also three or four volumes called "Political Philosophy," now generally forgotten. A volume of "Speeches at the Bar and in the Senate," belongs rather to oratory than literature. His lordship, except during the sitting of Parliament, resides chiefly at Cannes, in the south of France, where he has a château. His last winter, however, was spent at Brougham Hall, where he was detained by the state of his health.

BROWNING, ROBERT, Author of many popular English poems (and husband of a poetess, formerly Miss Barrett), was born at Camberwell in 1812, and educated at the London University. His first acknowledged work, called "Paracelsus," appeared in 1836; it gained the praises of the "Examiner," and a few other select papers, but made no great hit with the public. In 1837 Mr. Browning came forth with a tragedy, "Strafford," which Mr. Macready was induced to put on the stage, himself personating the hero; but the public again lent a deaf ear. "Sordello," a still more unsuccessful affair, followed. Mr. Browning's next offering found somewhat more favour. It was called, "Peppa Passes," the first of a series, which he calls "Bells and Pomegranates;" next came another drama, "The Blot in the Scutcheon," played at Drury Lane in 1843: again no popularity. But if Mr. Browning meets with little sympathy at the hands of the general reader, he has a knot of very hearty literary admirers, who justify their regard by reference to some certainly very clever portions of this poet's works. Besides the works just mentioned, Mr. Browning has produced "King Viator and King Charles;" "Dramatic Lyrics;" "Return of the Druses;" "Columbe's Birthday;" "Dramatic Romances;" "Luria;" "The Soul's Tragedy."

BRUNSWICK-WOLFENBUTTEL, AUGUSTUS LOUIS WILLIAM, Duke of, born 26th of April, 1806, took the reins of government April 25th, 1831, on the flight of his

elder brother, the previous Duke, since sufficiently known in London.

BRYANT, WILLIAM CULLEN, an American Journalist and Poet, born at Cummington, Hampshire County, Massachusetts, November 3, 1794. His forefathers, for three generations, were medical men; but this family *penchant* for physic did not exist, apparently, in the case of our poet, who changed the professional current by becoming a lawyer. For ten years he followed, unwillingly it seems, the tortuous course of legal practice, but at last gave it up for the more genial profession of literature. He became editor of the "New York Review," and published several poems and tales, which quickly became popular. From this point he went on swimmingly; writing in the chief periodical publications, in conjunction with some of the leading American authors of his day, and becoming, moreover, the editor of a New York paper, the "Evening Post." In 1834 and 35, and again in 1843, he travelled in Europe, writing descriptions of what he saw for his journal in America. Whilst he has gained most reputation by his verses, he has, probably, done most real public service by his political writings. These have ever been vigorous and useful, and consistently in favour of free trade, and free discussion, and against monopolies of all kinds, and condemnatory of mob law and of mere partisan politics.

BUCKINGHAM, JAMES SILK, Traveller, Public Lecturer, and Writer, born in Truro, Cornwall, in 1784, began life as a printer, but soon afterwards turned sailor, and commanded several vessels, but left the sea to turn proprietor and editor of a newspaper in Calcutta, which became very successful. Having criticised very freely some acts of the authorities in the columns of his journal, the Indian Government arbitrarily and abruptly stopped his paper, and ordered him to quit the country. This was an act of tyranny that brought its own punishment, for Buckingham came to Europe, and began an agitation against the Indian authorities and their system, which lasted for many years, and hastened the formation of a public opinion in England on Indian subjects which has resulted in a great diminution of the powers of the magnates of Leadenhall

Street. Mr. Buckingham became an excellent speaker, and a voluminous, if not a very amusing author. He travelled in the East, and gave the results to the world in several volumes, entitled "Travels in Palestine," "Travels among the Arab Tribes," and "Travels in Mesopotamia;" the latter published in 1827. A subsequent tour in America resulted in the completion and issue of "Travels in America," which were, however, unpopular, and won the dispraise of being "a dull compilation." He was elected M.P. for Sheffield after the passing of the Reform Bill. One of Mr. Buckingham's feats was the establishment of a newspaper called the "Sphynx," and the literary journal still so popular, — "The Athenæum." The "Sphynx" died; and the "Athenæum" was not successful whilst in the hands of its originator, nor whilst under the control of Mr. Stirling (son of the "Thunderer" of "The Times," Capt. Stirling). Sold to its present owner, Mr. Dilke, its fortunes soon changed. Mr. Buckingham was for a time a lecturer for the Anti-Corn-law League. Recently the East India Company have in some degree atoned for former harshness by giving Mr. Buckingham a pension, which, after a life of struggles, he now enjoys.

BUCKLAND, DOCTOR WILLIAM, a Geologist, is least known by his greatest work,—that of naturalising in the University of Oxford the boldest of modern physical sciences. He was educated at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, of which he became a Fellow, and in 1813 was appointed Reader in Mineralogy; in three years afterwards he procured the establishment of a Readership in Geology, and received the appointment. His profound acquaintance with the subject (for he had studied its practical applications as well as the theories of its professors) conferred a lustre on the new chair, and was recommending the subject to the somewhat fastidious higher classes, when his Bridgewater Treatise made its appearance, invested with all the charm of eloquence, and extracting from the dry bones of ancient animals more living proofs of the wisdom and beneficence of the Deity. He formed the beautiful collection of geological specimens now placed in the Radcliffe Library at Oxford, and subsequently had a large share in establishing the Museum in Jermyn Street, London. In November 1845 he was called to the deanery of Westminster, vacant by the

elevation of Dr. Samuel Wilberforce to the episcopal bench. In this capacity he has distinguished himself by the example he set to all heads of cathedral bodies, in facilitating the admission of the public to view the ancient monuments of the English Church, and in encouraging attendance on cathedral worship by liberal regulations. The Doctor exerted himself strenuously, both before and after the last cholera visitation, to persuade the Government to secure a good water supply to this metropolis, preaching, writing, and lecturing incessantly upon the danger of postponing such a work. His labours so affected his mental health, that, in July 1850, it was judged prudent that he should retire for a time to a retreat in the neighbourhood of Oxford.

BULWER—SIR EDWARD LYTTON BULWER LYTTON, BART., Novelist and Poet. According to strict legality, Bulwer the Novelist is now Sir E. L. Bulwer Lytton, Bart., and should, therefore, be arranged in this volume under the letter L. But whatever the heralds and the legalists may say or arrange to the contrary, the public will ever call the books that have made our author's reputation, and which give him a place in the present list and in other pages where "Nature's nobility" are chronicled, "Bulwer's" Novels. Who would think of asking for "Pelham," by Lytton? or "Rienzi," by Lytton? No. Bulwer will be his name in literature, whatever it may be in baronetages and acts of parliament. Bulwer the Novelist is the son of the late General Bulwer, of Heydon Hall, Norfolk, by Elizabeth, daughter and heiress of Henry Warburton Lytton, Esq., of Knebworth Park, Herts. The registers of our English nobility and gentry will tell those curious in pedigrees with how many ancient and noble houses these families are connected; but it must suffice us to record the fact, that Mr. Bulwer's maternal grandfather was a remarkable scholar, the intimate friend of Sir William Jones, the best Hebraist of his time; and in further confirmation of those who believe all intellectual superiority to be derived from the mother, we may add, that the daughter of this gentleman inherited a turn for elegant literature, and that Mr. Bulwer, deprived of his father at an early age, wrote his first verses, when five or six years old, for her pleasure; some of these being imitations of Percy's ballads, *which* was a favourite book of his infancy.

We cannot but enlarge this scanty notice, by pointing to the author's own charming and heartfelt picture of one residence of his boyhood, in the paper called "Knebworth," in the "Student." Bulwer was placed at several private schools (never, we believe, at a public one), subsequently under two private tutors, and his education completed, as far as routine studies are concerned, at Cambridge. Whilst there he wrote a prize poem on Sculpture, and occupied the long vacation by wandering over a large part of England and Scotland on foot; and it is more than probable that the humours and adventures of such a journey, and those gathered and experienced during a subsequent ramble through France on horseback, first gave rise to the idea of his presenting himself to the public as a novelist, a painter of many-coloured life as it is. But his first literary efforts were in verse. We may mention "Weeds and Wild Flowers," a collection of fugitive poems, bearing the date of 1826. To these succeeded "O'Neil the Rebel" (1827). In this year, too, "Falkland," his next work, was published anonymously. This cost its author, it is stated, more trouble than any of his novels, and is probably the least known among them. In 1828 "Pelham" made its appearance, and the busy career of authorship was commenced in good earnest. To estimate its fruits rightly, it should be borne in mind that they are not the only offspring of their writer's youth; that the practical duties of manhood and citizenship have not been sacrificed to the studies and fancies they record. Bulwer has acted, as well as thought and written: he has taken his part in society as a member of parliament, at first for St. Ives, and when that borough lost a member, for the ancient city of Lincoln. It must not be forgotten how worthily he has linked his literary and parliamentary career by his exertions in favour of a law for the protection of dramatic copyright, and for releasing the press from the burden of the stamp-laws. "Pelham" was the first work which awakened the public to perceive that a new author of power was abroad in the world. The book was severely criticised, one party being liberal in their praises, and another as fruitful in abuse. There was an intolerable air of superiority in the hero, which critics chose to extend to his creator, and, according to their usual justice, the identification being once made, *the cry of "Anathema"* was raised by a hundred voices.

"Pelham" was succeeded by "The Disowned" (1828), a more hastily-written work, with more romance and less worldly wisdom than its predecessor, and, as a whole, less uniformly sustained, though containing many scenes and episodes, brimful of the peculiar poetry and passion for which this then young writer was then distinguished — a poetry akin in spirit to that which had been so popular in the works of Byron. Bulwer's genius was evidently tinctured by the unhealthy tone of his lordly literary predecessor, and it would have been well for his ultimate fame if the author of "Pelham" had never read one line of Byron. Bulwer has genius enough to have been quite independent of the mock-heroic, and really bilious school of poetry and romance, and could have written books in which crime was not necessary for "spice," nor misanthropy for impressiveness. The next tale was "Devereux," a novel (1829); then came "Paul Clifford" (1830), a clever extravagance, with a highwayman for a hero, and which, by its very talent and power, was calculated to be injurious to the public taste. This work, which evinced on the part of its author an increasing mastery over the most terrible passions, and strongest and most secret workings of the mind, was followed by one published a few months afterwards, entitled, "Eugene Aram," with another criminal for hero, and the hangman for a climax. Such a subject was difficult—to any one not possessed of a master-mind, impracticable; and its difficulty for the uses of the romancer was increased by its catastrophe being already familiar to the public. And yet so cleverly was it handled, so intimately were our sympathies stirred for the lonely student, in whom the love of knowledge was mixed up with a capability for crime, that, when the natural cry of "a false moral" arose against the author, his friends and flatterers exclaimed violently against the judgment of the healthy-minded portion of Bulwer's readers. If, on the contrary, *all* had condemned such a leaning towards Newgate, of a mind capable of much better things, all would have aided the author's real interest, by stimulating to earn the purest fame which Nature had made him capable of winning. Of the "Siamese Twins," a serio-comic poem, published before "Eugene Aram," we need only speak as evidencing the eagerness with which its author has tried to make every field his own, *sometimes* without sufficiently weighing the worth

or practicability of his subject. There was a pause then in the novelist's labours; and Bulwer next appeared before the public as the editor of the "New Monthly Magazine," in which the poet Campbell had already laboured; and to which he contributed a series of papers, "The Conversations of an Ambitious Student," full of fine passages and lofty aspirations. The choicest of these essays have been since published in a collected form, under the title of "The Student." All this time (while, also, be it remembered, Mr. Bulwer was zealously fulfilling his parliamentary duties), he was at work upon his "England and the English" (1833), a clever and somewhat caustic anatomy of our national character. Scarcely had this essay run the gauntlet of abuse and popularity, when, the rod being laid down and the wand taken up again, the "Pilgrims of the Rhine" made their appearance; a *capriccio* in which the poet, with the freest-winged imagination, sports between elfin frolics and human sorrows, and carries us at his will from the airy revels, "where too much May-dew was drunk out of buttercups," to the chamber of the dying girl, with her impenetrable father, and her eager, passionate lover. His next work again showed Bulwer in a new light; as a romancer of ancient days,—the limner of "The Last Days of Pompeii," the fruit of an Italian journey; and soon after a yet nobler work, "Rienzi," followed, and established Bulwer firmly high in rank amongst our novelists. The tale was not one of mere glow and gorgeousness—of the banquets and the triumphs, the festivals and the processions, of old times. So strong a human interest, so vivid a display of character, was thrown into the restored ruins of the "Silent City," that, while reading, we felt as if mingling in its crowds, as if we knew Nydia the blind flower-girl, and Lydon the stalwart, true-hearted gladiator; as if we heard the high-pitched voice of the woman, who cared for nothing but that "there should be one man for the lion, and another for the tiger," and whose rhyme about "the merry show," mingles like an omen with the small cloud arising from the sea, with the scarcely felt trembling of the earthquake which announces to the doomed city that

"Fate hangs like a shadow o'er her feasts."

Nothing is neglected, nothing hurried in the working up of *this magnificent tale*, which fascinates us with as breathless

an interest as if the end of the story were not proclaimed in its title. But his stirring story of "Rienzi" has yet a higher merit. The strength of the "Pompeii" lies in the management of incident, illustrated by beautiful and breathing characters; the strength of "Rienzi" lies in the mastery of character—that complete mastery which, in portraying a hero, dares to show the flaws and blemishes which mingle with his noblest efforts; enough of what is small, and unworthy, and personal, to prevent his wielding omnipotence over the destinies of an inferior race, and which can still enchain our sympathy for him to the last. Never was the rise and progress of a revolution more cleverly sketched—never the balance more evenly held between a righteous cause and unrighteous means; and this by fresh, vivid dialogue, and in scenes that thrill us with their interest. The characters, too, are bolder and brighter than in any previous work. We need hardly instance Rienzi's high-hearted and haughty wife, and the Provençal knight, with his tender, romantic, troubadour spirit, breaking out from under his warrior's suit of mail, and the crew of corrupt Roman nobles, and the citizens, with Cecco del Vecchio, the sturdy and selfish smith, at their head. It would be difficult to name a work of its class higher in conception, or more exquisite in artistic treatment, than "Rienzi." A further proof of the industry, versatility, and aspiration, which eminently characterise Bulwer, was given by him early in 1837, in the production of the play "The Duchess de La Vallière," at Covent Garden. He had won fame as a novelist, and a poet, and a satirist of manners, and he now desired to shine upon the stage; but in his first dramatic effort he was not successful. The failure of this drama is easily understood. The story was one in which it was difficult to enlist the sympathies of an English audience—it was denounced as immoral; and, as if to lessen the chance of its success, the actors seemed to have studied how pathos might be exaggerated into rant, and lively dialogue degraded into burlesque. It is unequally written; the concentration eminently required for the stage,—and which may be attained without assuming the quips and quaintnesses of a bygone day,—was wanting to its dialogue, especially in the portions which connected its striking situations and its great speeches. His other dramas, the "Lady of Lyons," "Richelieu," and "Money," have had a more

fortunate fate. "Ernest Maltravers," another of his morbid novels, appeared in 1837, and was followed by a continuation of the same thread, entitled, "Alice, or the Mysteries;" neither of them worthy the author of "Rienzi." But failures may be overlooked—especially such brilliant ones as these—when their parent, with unflagging industry, goes on striving nobly for fame, and ever and anon produces such works as his next effort—half historical, half philosophical—like "Athens." This was planned when its author was at college, and was wrought upon, at intervals, for five years. The result is well worth the time and thought bestowed. The author has turned the full strength of a mind, at once shrewd, enthusiastic, and daring, upon his subject, and embellished it with all the graces of an ornamented style. Next came "Leila, or the Siege of Granada" (1838), and "Calderon the Courtier;" followed by "Night and Morning," "Day and Night," "Last of the Barons," "Lights and Shadows," "Glimmer and Gloom," "Zanoni" (1842), "Eva, the Ill-Omened Marriage," and other Tales and Poems (1842). The mere list of all he has done would make a long catalogue of itself. If in some cases Bulwer has wasted power and beauty upon sin and unworthiness, or has allowed a prurient imagination to run wild in embellishing crime, it will be admitted he has displayed wonderful versatility and industry, and undoubted genius. The volumes in which he has wrought with the purest models in his "mind's eye," are surely his most excellent productions, and those on which his fame will hereafter most securely rest. The "New Timon" and "King Arthur," two clever poems, were published anonymously. Upon the latter the author tells us he bestowed much thought and labour; and when, after a while, he acknowledged the paternity, he made some interesting confessions on the subject. "The motives," he says, "that induced me to publish anonymously the first portion of 'Arthur,' as well as the 'New Timon,' are simple enough to be readily recognised. An author who has been some time before the public, feels, in undertaking some new attempt in his vocation, as if released from an indescribable restraint, when he pre-resolves to hazard his experiment as that of one utterly unknown. That determination gives at once freedom and zest to his labours in the hours of composition, and on the anxious eve of publication restores to him

much of the interest and pleasurable excitement that charmed his earliest delusions. When he escapes from the judgment that has been passed on his manhood, he seems again to start fresh from the expectation of his youth. In my own case, too, I believed, whether truly or erroneously, that my experiment would have a fairer chance of justice, if it could be regarded without personal reference to the author: and, at all events, it was clear that I myself could the better judge how far the experiment had failed or succeeded, when freed from the partial kindness of those disposed to over-rate, or the predetermine dcensure of those accustomed to despise, my former labours. These motives were sufficient to decide me to hazard, unacknowledged, those attempts which the public has not ungraciously received. And, indeed, I should have been well contented to preserve the mask, if it had not already failed to ensure the disguise. My identity with the author of these poems has been so generally insisted upon, that I have no choice between the indiscretion of frank avowal and the effrontery of flat denial. Whatever influence of good or ill my formal adoption of these foundlings may have upon their future career, like other adventurers they must, therefore, take their chance in the crowd, happy if they can propitiate their father's foes, yet retain his friends, and, irrespective of either, sure to be judged at last according to their own deserts." A writer in "Bentley's Miscellany" gives us some interesting hints about the habits which have enabled Bulwer to produce the host of books that bear his name. "Bulwer worked his way to eminence—worked it through failure, through ridicule. His facility is only the result of practice and study. He wrote at first very slowly, and with great difficulty; but he resolved to master the stubborn instrument of thought, and mastered it. He has practised writing as an art, and has re-written some of his essays (unpublished) nine or ten times over. Another habit will show the advantage of continuous application. He only works about three hours a-day—from ten in the morning till one—seldom later. The evenings, when alone, are devoted to reading, scarcely ever to writing. Yet what an amount of good hard labour has resulted from these three hours! He writes very rapidly, averaging twenty pages a-day of novel print." Bulwer's latest publications have included a protectionist pamphlet, entitled, "Letters to John Bull," and a

drama, " Not so Bad as we Seem," written for the amateur company of whom Charles Dickens is the chief; and generously given, and as generously acted, for the benefit of the new Guild of Literature and Art.

BULWER, SIR HENRY EARLE LYTTON, K.C.B., diplomatist and author, was born in 1804, and is brother to Sir E. Bulwer Lytton. Henry Bulwer early prepared to devote himself to the active business of life. His numerous accomplishments and aptitude for business having recommended him to the notice of the Government, he was introduced to the diplomatic service in 1829, and attached successively to the British embassy at Berlin, Brussels, and the Hague. In 1830 he was sent on a special mission to Brussels to watch the course of the Belgium revolution. In the same year he entered Parliament as representative of Wilton. He was member for Coventry in 1831 and 1832, and for Marylebone from 1834 till 1837. In 1835 he was made Secretary of Legation and Chargé d'Affaires at Brussels; in 1837 he became Secretary of Embassy at Constantinople, and negotiated there the commercial treaty between England and the Porte. He was appointed Secretary of Embassy in Paris in 1839, and in the course of that and the following year was thrice gazetted as interim minister at the court of France during the absence of the ambassador. In 1843 he was made Minister Plenipotentiary at the court of Madrid, and concluded the peace between Spain and Morocco in the following year. During the troubles of the Spanish capital in 1848, Mr. Bulwer was frequently the medium of the remonstrances of his government upon the arbitrary and unconstitutional system followed by Narvaez. As his firmness and candour were found exceedingly inconvenient, the soldier-minister determined upon his removal, and after having in vain sought to discredit him with the British cabinet, pretended to have discovered his complicity in plots laid against the Spanish government, and upon this pretext suddenly ordered him to leave Madrid. The English government marked its sense of this indignity by declining to name his successor, and for two years the court of Spain received no British minister. Both parties in the House of Commons approved Mr. Bulwer's conduct, and *her Majesty named* him a Knight Commander of the Bath.

The hasty Spaniard has since made the *amende honorable* in a note on the subject, the terms of which were dictated by Lord Palmerston. Sir Henry Bulwer has since proceeded to Washington as British minister, and enjoys considerable popularity in the United States, where he has known how to conciliate the temper of a sensitive people while maintaining the interests of his country. Like his brother, Sir Edward, he is an author, as well as a politician. He has published "An Autumn in Greece;" "France, Social and Literary;" "The Monarchy of the Middle Classes;" and a "Life of Lord Byron," prefixed to a Paris edition of the poet's works.

BUNTING, JABEZ, D.D., who has been described as the Hercules of modern Methodism, is a native of Manchester, and has earned his present position in the ranks of his sect by the force of natural talent and assiduous self-cultivation. He was, some time ago, President of the Wesleyan Conference, and is influential in swaying many an opinion that is cheered loudly at the May meetings at Exeter Hall. He was educated by Dr. Percival of Manchester, and numbered amongst his early religious friends Dr. Adam Clarke and Dr. Coke. He is now regarded by his supporters as a man of business views and habits, a good debater, clever preacher, and one thoroughly aware of the political as well as religious bearings of the large and influential body to which he is attached.

BURRITT, ELIHU, an American Lecturer, Scholar, Journalist, and Blacksmith, has, by dint of talent, industry, and the constant following out of one chief idea, obtained considerable celebrity both in England and France, as well as America. Burritt was born in Connecticut in 1811, and received an ordinary school education till he was sixteen, when, his father dying, he was apprenticed to a blacksmith. Being always fond of reading, he had made a tolerably good acquaintance with English literature during his apprenticeship; but on the expiry of that, he seems to have entertained some wider scholarly ambitions, and at the age of twenty-one set to work to study mathematics. During spring and summer he spent a large portion of his time at the anvil, alternately forging and reading; and thus earned enough to enable him to devote a good part of the winter to

his studies. These, by dint of great perseverance, appear to have thriven apace; and he successively gained a considerable mastery of Latin, French, Spanish, Greek, and Hebrew. German and other European languages appear to have been subsequently added to his stock of lore; and by the time he had made progress thus far, he thought his pen, as a translator, might be made to add to the weariness of his labour at the forge. He does not seem at this time to have succeeded in this, but the effort gained him some friends, and he was induced to try, in succession, school-keeping and trade; but in neither made any success, and went on again with his studies and his hammer. Eastern languages now became the object of his pursuit; and he found other congenial occupation in writing for the public prints, and in lecturing to popular audiences. Speaking of himself, Burritt says:—"All that I have accomplished, or expect or hope to accomplish, has been, and will be, by that plodding, patient, and persevering process of accretion which builds the ant-heap—particle by particle, thought by thought, fact by fact. And if I ever was actuated by ambition, its highest and farthest aspiration reached no farther than the hope to set before the young men of my country an example in employing those fragments of time called 'odd moments.' And I should esteem it an honour of costlier water than the tiara encircling a monarch's brow, if my future activity and attainments should encourage American working men to be proud and jealous of the credentials which God has given them to every eminence and immunity in the empire of mind. These are the views and sentiments with which I have sat down night by night for years, with blistered hands and brightening hope, to studies which I hoped might be serviceable to that class of the community to which I am proud to belong. This is my ambition,—this is the goal of my aspirations. But not only the prize, but the whole course lies before me—perhaps beyond my reach. 'I count myself not yet to have attained' to anything worthy of public notice or private mention, what I *may* do is for Providence to determine. With regard to my attention to the languages (a study of which I am not so fond as of mathematics), I have tried, by a kind of practical and philosophical process, to contract such a familiar acquaintance with the head of a *family of languages*, as to introduce me to the other mem-

bers of the same family. Thus, studying the Hebrew very critically, I became readily acquainted with its cognate languages; among the principal of which are the Syriac, Chaldaic, Arabic, Samaritan, Ethiopic, &c. The languages of Europe occupied my attention immediately after I had finished my classics; and I studied French, Spanish, Italian, and German, under native teachers. Afterwards I pursued the Portuguese, Flemish, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Welsh, Gaelic, Celtic. I then ventured on further east, into the Russian empire, and the Sclavonic opened to me about a dozen of the languages spoken in that vast domain, between which the affinity is as marked as that between the Spanish and Portuguese. Besides those, I have attended to many different European dialects still in vogue. I am now trying to push on eastward as far as my means will permit, hoping to discover still farther analogies among the Oriental languages, which will assist my progress." In June 1846 Burritt left America for this country. For a year or two he had been agitating in his mind the scheme of a Peace League; and, however utopian we may regard the work to which he has applied himself, we cannot but respect the undoubted zeal with which he has since laboured in England and upon the Continent, to induce, if possible, the European nations to enrol themselves as members of the bond of Universal Brotherhood. The meetings in Paris, Brussels, Francfort, and London, have since given great publicity to the plans of the association to which Burritt has devoted himself. He has given no literary proofs of the vast scholarship which his friends claim for him, but all men can estimate the value of his continued exertions in favour of peace. This brief notice may be closed by a copy of the pledge which was issued as the basis of the League of Universal Brotherhood:—"Believing all war to be inconsistent with the spirit of Christianity, and destructive of the best interests of mankind, I do hereby pledge myself never to enlist or enter any army or navy, or to yield any *voluntary* support or sanction to the preparation for, or prosecution of, any war, by whomsoever or for whatsoever purposes declared or waged. And I do hereby associate myself with all persons, of whatever country, condition, or colour, who have signed, or shall hereafter sign this pledge, in a 'League of Universal *Brotherhood*;' whose object shall be to employ

all legitimate and moral means for the abolition of all war, and all the spirit and all the manifestations of war, throughout the world; for the abolition of all restrictions upon international correspondence and friendly intercourse, and of whatever else tends to make enemies of nations, or prevents their fusion into one peaceful brotherhood; for the abolition of all institutions and customs which do not recognise and respect the image of God and a human brother in every man, of whatever clime, colour, or condition of humanity."

C.

CAMPBELL, JOHN, LORD, Judge and Author, son of a Scotch clergyman, was born in Fifeshire in 1781; educated at St. Andrew's, and studied for the bar, to which he was admitted in Lincoln's Inn in 1806. In his early days, when other employment was scarce, he held a post as reporter and theatrical critic on the "Morning Chronicle" newspaper, but the acumen which made him eligible for such an engagement having gained an opportunity of display in the Courts, he obtained legal business, and ultimately won a large income as an advocate. His success was promoted by his marriage with a daughter of Mr. Scarlett, afterwards Lord Abinger. In 1827 he became Q.C.; in 1832, Solicitor-General and a Knight Bachelor; in 1834, Attorney-General, a post he continued to hold (with a slight period of retirement) till 1841, when he was named Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and obtained a Barony. He left the Irish seal when his party went out of office, but on their return to place he became a Cabinet Minister as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and on the retirement of Lord Denman was made Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench. He has always been a pushing man, and in politics a Whig. During the intervals of other tasks he has found time to complete "Lives of the Lord Chancellors" and "Lives of the Chief Justices of England;" both more complete than similar previous biographies. His eldest son is M.P. for Cambridge.

CANDLISH, REV. DR., a popular Scotch preacher, and *leader of the "non-intrusion"* party during the troubles

which finally led to the separation of the Scottish Church into two distinct sections, and the establishment of the Free Kirk. Dr. Candlish is regarded as a better debater than preacher; his voice is shrill; his ideas follow each other with great rapidity, but are more remarkable for ingenuity than breadth of thought. He is the author of an Exposition of the Book of Genesis.

CANTERBURY, JOHN BIRD SUMNER, ARCHBISHOP OF, the legal head of the Church and chief of the "Low Church" or Evangelical party. As a clerical dignitary, Dr. Sumner has been truly described as the very opposite of Dr. Philpotts, bishop of Exeter; and they may be regarded as examples of the two extreme parties, between which the clergy of the Church of England are just now divided. Dr. Sumner was formerly Bishop of Chester, and is elder brother to Sumner, bishop of Winchester. Archbishop Sumner is a liberal in politics; and in character is conciliatory, laborious, and high-principled. He is the inflexible opponent of the Romanising-Tractarian-Puseyite clergy. He is Primate of all England and Metropolitan, Doctor of Divinity; was translated in 1848. Eldest son of the Rev. Robert Sumner, M.A.; grandson of Dr. John Sumner, Provost of King's College, 1756–72; born, 1780; married, 1823, daughter of Capt. George Roberson. Educated at King's College, Cambridge. His University honours are Browne's Medallist (Latin), 1800; Hulse's Prizeman, 1802; B.A. 1803; M.A. 1807; D.D. 1828. Former preferments: Canon of Durham, 1820; consecrated Bishop of Chester, 1828. Patronage: Archdeaconries of Canterbury and Maidstone; two canonries; six preacherships in Canterbury Cathedral; 168 benefices; the total annual value of which is 61,973*l.* Diocese: the county of Kent (excepting the city and deanery of Rochester) and some parishes in the diocese of London; number of benefices, 346. List of published works: "Apostolical Preaching Considered;" "Charges at Chester;" "Evidences of Christianity;" "Exposition of the Acts of the Apostles,"—"of St. James, St. Peter, &c.,"—"of St. John,"—"of St. Luke,"—"of St. Matthew and St. Mark,"—"of the Romans and 1st Corinthians,"—"of the 2d Corinthians;" "Four Sermons on Christian Ministry;" "Sermons on Christian Charity;" "Sermons on the Christian Faith;"

"Sermons on the Festivals;" "Treatise on the Records of the Creation," &c.

CARLETON, WILLIAM, Irish Novelist, born at Clogher, Tyrone, in 1798. His father was a peasant, but described as a man remarkable for his knowledge of the traditions of his country, and from him the future author appears to have early imbibed the characteristic prejudices, feelings, and superstitions of his country. Carleton displayed an early taste for reading, and became what is known in Ireland as a poor scholar—a character he has himself described in one of his most popular fictions. When old enough, he became a tutor in a village school; but, wandering off to Dublin in search of fortune, a publisher was induced to speculate upon two anonymous volumes from his pen, entitled "Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry." These appeared in 1830, and decided his fate: he was henceforth to be an author, and in that character has since wrought, sometimes with more, sometimes with less, success. His productions include a second series of "Traits and Stories," "Fardorougha the Miser," and "The Fawn and Spring Vale," and other tales. Mr. Carleton is now in the enjoyment of a pension of 200*l.* a-year.

CARLOS, DON, a Pretender to the Crown of Spain, whose attempts to gain possession of the regal dignity for many years kept that kingdom in turmoil and disquiet. The Salic law which excludes females from enjoying the privileges of royalty was never a part of the Spanish constitution, although it was adopted as a personal arrangement by the branch of Bourbons which has for a hundred years filled the throne of Spain. It pleased Ferdinand, the last king, to abrogate this family law; and his act was constitutionally confirmed by the nation. Don Carlos, brother of the late king, refused to be a party to the settlement which excluded him from the succession; and upon his brother's death asserted his claim to the Spanish throne by arms. He was defeated and ultimately compelled to take refuge in France, where Bourges was assigned to him as a residence. In the hope, perhaps, that the difference between himself and niece might be composed by her marriage with his son, the Prince *of Asturias, also* called the Conde de Montemolin, he, in

1845, abdicated in his favour. The Queen of Spain has, however, since taken another prince for her husband, and the fortunes of the Carlists are at the lowest ebb.

CARLYLE, THOMAS, the "Censor of the Age," was born in 1796, at Middlebie, in Dumfriesshire, where his father, an earnest religious man, was a small farmer. He received the rudiments of a classical education at a school in Annan, where he afterwards had for his companions the since celebrated Edward Irving and Clapperton the traveller. About 1813 he proceeded to the University of Edinburgh, where he remained two years, spending the vacations under his father's roof. At college he was distinguished for nothing so much as his attachment to the study of mathematics, then taught there by Leslie. He appears at this time to have proposed to himself the Christian ministry in the church of his fathers. After teaching mathematics at a school in Dysart for about two years he devoted himself, in 1823, to the profession of literature; and in the following year contributed to Brewster's "Edinburgh Encyclopædia" the articles "Montesquieu," "Montaigne," "Nelson," "Norfolk," and those on the two "Pitts;" and to the "New Edinburgh Review," an "Essay on Joanna Baillie's Plays of the Passions." In the same year he completed a translation of Legendre's "Geometry," to which he prefixed an "Essay on Proportions," and also published his translation of Goëthe's "Wilhelm Meister," a work which betrayed a direction of reading destined to influence materially his future career. On the completion of this translation he commenced his "Life of Schiller," which appeared by instalments in the "London Magazine," then sustained by the talents of Lamb, Hazlitt, and Cunningham. In 1825 or 1826 he married, and resided alternately at Comely Bank and Craigenputtoch, a little estate in Dumfrieshire, whence were dated several of his letters to Goëthe, included in the published correspondence of the latter. In one of these he says, "Our residence is not in the town (Dumfries) itself, but fifteen miles to the north-west of it, among the granite hills and the black morasses which stretch westwards through Galloway almost to the Irish Sea. In this wilderness of heath and rock, our estate stands forth a green oasis—a tract of ploughed, partly enclosed and planted ground, where corn ripens and trees

afford a shade, although surrounded by sea-mews and rough-woolled sheep. Here, with no small effort, have we built and furnished a neat, substantial mansion; here, in the absence of a professorial or other office, we live to cultivate literature with diligence, and in our own peculiar way. We wish a joyful growth to the roses and flowers of our garden; we hope for health and peaceful thoughts to further our aims. The roses, indeed, are still in part to be planted, but they blossom already in anticipation. Two ponies, which carry us everywhere, and the mountain air, are the best medicines for weak nerves. This daily exercise, to which I am much devoted, is my only dissipation; for this nook of ours is the loneliest in Britain — six miles removed from every one who in any case might visit me. Here Rousseau would have been as happy as on his island of Saint Pierre." Here he remained writing for the "Foreign" and other reviews, composing, and perhaps living, "Sartor Resartus," until about 1830, when he returned to London, and became an important contributor to "Fraser's Magazine," in which his portrait was twice given. Here appeared his "Sartor," a succession of chapters of strange interest, depicting and portraying the inward struggles of a soul stirred to its depths by contemplating the great problems of human life. In 1837 he published his "French Revolution," a series of paintings, grand, terrific, and ghastly. Two years after, his "Chartism" appeared, and with it his "Critical and Miscellaneous Essays," collected and republished, in five volumes, from reviews and magazines. In 1840 he delivered a series of lectures on Hero Worship at the west end of London, which he published in the following year. His "Past and Present" was published in 1843. The general conviction of men's minds after the European convulsions of 1848 offered an occasion for expressing his views on the aspects of the times, and the "Latter-day Pamphlets" were written, full of lofty rebuke of the hollow statesmanship which conceals the truth until it blazes out amid the horrors of revolution. The latest work of this writer is his "Life of John Sterling," once his intimate friend. His great characteristic is a rugged earnestness of thought and expression, and a range of thought widened and deepened by his acquaintance with the writings of the great German thinkers. Shallowness, insincerity, and *pretension, have* never had a more formidable enemy than

they encounter in him. In the midst of his anger he, however, gives so many proofs of a humble, truth-loving, and even kind spirit, that he is allowed to speak severe truths with a freedom which the age could scarcely permit to another man living. For some years Mr. Carlyle has lived in dignified simplicity at Chelsea, in a house which looks immediately on the Thames.

CARNOT, HIPPOLYTE, Ex-Minister of Public Instruction in France, was born in 1801, studied the law, and became an advocate. Later in life he ranked as a *homme de lettres*, and edited the "Révue Encyclopédique." He was formerly a disciple of St. Simon, and is now a strong Republican. Carnot is the son of the old Conventionalist.

CASABIANCA, M., appointed Minister of Commerce for France in November 1851; a decided Bonapartist, although not of the extreme dye of Persigny. He is a member of the Assembly, in which he represents Corsica. Born at Nice in 1796, he studied for the bar, which profession he practised as an advocate in the court of Bastia, in Corsica. He was a candidate for the liberal opposition under the monarchy of July. Since the Revolution of February he has steered a moderate course between the Republicans and the party of reaction. With M. Abbatucci he has been one of the most confidential advisers of Louis Napoleon.

CASS, GENERAL LEWIS, of Michigan, the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for the Presidency of the United States, in opposition to General Zachary Taylor, the Whig; and now again a candidate for the same important post. Cass was born in Exeter, New Hampshire, but early settled in Michigan. He began life as a lawyer; but not succeeding, obtained a lieutenant's commission in the army, and served, and was made prisoner by the English in 1812, without, it is said, ever being in a battle. The war with the Seminole Indians has been ascribed to his want of talent, when, at a later period, he acted as Secretary-at-war. He is called a scholar rather than a soldier; a politician rather than a statesman; and, according to his opponents, has been flexible in his opinions for the sake of gaining and retaining office. *General Jackson* appointed him Minister of the

United States to France, where, to the great disgust of his Democratic friends, he required all the Yankees who wished to be presented to the king to buy costly court dresses, and raised that disgust still higher by publishing a book, entitled "France, its King, Court, and Government," in which Louis Philippe and his supporters were lavishly praised as the greatest and best of men. When General Harrison was elected, Cass lost his post, and returned to America, where, in answer to certain inquiries propounded to him, he declared himself in favour of a high protective tariff, distribution of the proceeds of the public lands, and of the constitutionality of a Bank of the United States. These views brought him in close alliance with Governor Porter, of Pennsylvania, and that portion of the Locofoco party who had a leaning to those measures. He was afterwards elected to the Senate of the United States. Being now in a position of influence he commenced bidding for the Presidency. Accordingly, a public meeting in Kentucky was got up in 1843, where he was recommended for President, and Governor Porter for Vice-President. With this endorsement, the two entered the Baltimore Convention of 1844, and there succeeded in defeating Van Buren by the introduction of the two-thirds rule, but were themselves defeated in getting the nomination. He next espoused (says an American journalist) the annexation of Texas, the extension and propagation of slavery, and the war with Mexico for additional territory to promote slavery. But in these, as in some former measures, he soon became perplexed. Wilmot of Pennsylvania introduced his celebrated proviso against the extension of slavery in free territory. This was a Democratic measure, popular in the free States and odious in the South. The course he pursued was to make a speech for the proviso, and to vote against it. Then came the repeal of the protective tariff of 1842, which he had approved of and recommended. The tariff was Democratic and popular in the free States and odious in the South. He made a speech in favour of the tariff and voted to repeal it. During the present session of Congress he made a speech against slavery as a moral evil and published a letter approving of it in free territory. His general declarations have been of the most ultra character; and amongst them must be noticed his cry for war with *England when the* Oregon dispute was in course of settle-

ment. General Cass is a teetotaller, having never, say the friends of water-drinking, tasted spirituous liquors in his life.

CATTERMOLE, GEORGE, Painter, born near Diss, Norfolk, about the year 1800. No one man can have examined Mr. Cattermole's works upon the walls of the Water-Colour Exhibition, which they have adorned for some twenty years, without having been struck, not merely with the admirable harmony of colour and tone—a tone and colour quite original—which pervades them, but with the profound knowledge of chiaroscuro which they exhibit. Monks, cavaliers, battles, banditti, knightly halls, and awful enchanted forests in which knights and distressed damsels wander—the pomp and circumstance of feudal times, are subjects in which Mr. Cattermole chiefly delights. He is the English Salvator, with more poetry than the Italian and equal skill. Five-and-twenty years back, some of the most elaborate architectural drawings in Britton's Cathedrals are to be found with the signature of the young student, who afterwards applied the knowledge, of which he thus laid the ground-work, in the execution of the thousand brilliant and beautiful works which we owe to his abundant genius. Among the finest of his works, everybody who saw it will remember the "Skirmish on the Bridges;" and his Scottish designs, illustrating the life of Queen Mary, are as remarkable for their beauty of design and colour as for their poetry, which is gloomy and grand. Some fine delineations of his favourite Cavaliers and Roundheads are to be found ornamenting his brother's volumes of the "History of the Civil Wars." Some of the most powerful of his latest performances are suggestions from the Histories and Tragedies of Shakspeare.

CAVAIGNAC, EUGENE, a French General and Politician, in opinions a steady and consistant Republican, but for a while, during the convulsions that followed the Revolution of 1846, the Dictator of France. He was born in Paris, December 15, 1802, his father being the old Conventionalist of the same name. An elder brother, Godefroy Cavaignac, studied the law, and being also a Republican in opinion, became an active and influential agent in promoting the Revolution of 1830; but the government of Louis Philippe

not satisfying Godefroy's ideas, he attacked it, and suffered prosecution and imprisonment in consequence. At a later period he became, at the suggestion of Ledru Rollin, the editor of "La Reforme," a Paris paper of much importance; but died in 1845. Whilst his brother was thus occupied in the arena of practical politics, the future general was serving in the French army, in which he had gained a commission after a course of successful study at the Polytechnic School. In 1828 he held a command in the French expedition to the Morea. He afterwards returned to his native country; and at the time of the Revolution of July 1830 was in garrison at Arras, at which place, and afterwards at Metz, he openly avowed his revolutionary principles. While in garrison in the latter town, he was asked by his colonel if he would obey orders to fire on the populace in case of an insurrection. He answered by a decided refusal. In consequence of this conduct he was sent by the government to Africa, where he distinguished himself greatly in the Algerine war, and rose in his profession, notwithstanding his well-known political opinions. After the capture of Tlemcen, in 1836, Marshal Clauzel, who had commanded the expedition, left as garrison in the citadel of that place a company of volunteers under the command of Cavaignac. He showed great bravery in this perilous charge; again and again repelled the attacks of the Arabs; and when hard pressed by Abd-el-Kader, inspired all around him with the same courageous spirit by which he was himself animated. From this period he was actively engaged in the Algerine war, and gradually rising in the service; at one time guarding the meeting of the French emissaries and the delegates of Morocco, to settle the western boundary of Algiers, at another busied in defeating the machinations of the prophet Mohammed-ben-Abdallah, who, in the desert, endeavoured to excite the people, by appealing to their religious prejudices. In 1847 he took the place of Lamoricière, in the command of the province of Oran, which he retained until raised by a decree of the Provisional Government (Feb. 24, 1848) to the governor-generalship of Algeria. In this capacity he entered Algiers on the 10th of March, and issued a proclamation:—"My intentions," said he, "are honest, my designs pure. What I consider good, I will say to you; what I consider bad, *shall have no* support from me. The French nation is all-

powerful; she gives authority, she shall be obeyed; to obey her is sweet and glorious. Prepare, in silence and reflection, to answer my appeal. You have felt, as well as myself, that the memory of my noble brother still lives in the minds of the great citizens who have chosen me to watch over your interests. By the choice of me for this office, they would declare that the government of this colony shall be conducted on principles worthy of the Republic." During the short period in which he held the government of Algeria, Cavaignac distinguished himself by the firmness, prudence, and judgment of his administration. A man of such character and ability was naturally considered by the electors as a suitable delegate to the National Assembly. He was chosen at the same time for the departments of Lot and Seine, and decided upon sitting for the former, as being the native place of his family. A decree of the Provisional Government (Feb. 24th) had made him General of Division, and a second decree named him Minister of War; but he refused to accept the office, because he was not allowed to concentrate a large military force in Paris. By a third decree he was, at his own request, recalled to the metropolis, in order to take part in the proceedings of the National Assembly. On the 12th of May he left Algiers, and arrived in Paris just after the disturbances of the 15th of that month. On the 17th he was appointed Minister of War, events having shown the necessity of concentrating the military power in one person; and, on the 23d, the President of the National Assembly delivered to him the command of all the troops appointed to guard the Chamber. On the 8th of June, Lamartine pointed out in the council the signs of the impending outburst in Paris, and demanded the presence of more troops in the city for the protection of the National Assembly, and in a short time 75,000 bayonets were at hand to support the 190,000 National Guards previously there. On the 22d of June, 1848, the Communists and supporters of the *ateliers nationaux* began their open operations, and the 23d saw them again behind the barricades. Two plans for putting down the outbreak were severally proposed. The Executive Committee was for spreading the troops over the capital, and preventing the erection of barricades. Cavaignac's system was the reverse of this, and consisted in concentrating his forces at certain points, and

bringing them into action in large masses. The insurrections of July 1830 and February 1848 had been treated by the existing governments as a sort of larger street riots, to be quelled in a police fashion. He treated that of June as an outbreak of civil war, and met it in true order of battle. Those two examples proved to him, he said, "the necessity of not spreading the troops through the streets, but of advancing them in compact bodies, and in such numbers, that the insurrection should always be forced to give way before them. In such affairs, the least check is fatal to an army. Above all things, to keep inviolate the honour of the flag was the sure pledge of final success. The event has confirmed the correctness of these views." General Cavaignac consulted his comrades, Lamoricière, Bedeau, and Foucher, on this plan, and finding that they fully approved of it, he determined to act strictly upon it, but without disclosing it to the Executive Committee. "He was not sure that they, in their ignorance of military matters, would have approved of it; or, if they had, they might have taken it on themselves to carry it out, and perhaps failed." It was a necessary consequence of this system of tactics, that the insurgents had ample time to choose their ground and fortify it. Their manner of doing this displayed, in a remarkable degree, that proficiency in the art of defence to which the Parisian populace had attained by long practice in street-fighting. For the basis of their operations they had four main positions, two on the northern or right bank of the river, namely, the Clos St. Lazare, a little north of the Porte St. Denis, and the Place de la Bastile; and on the left bank they had the Church of St. Severin and the Panthéon. An imaginary line, running in a direction nearly north and south through the Clos St. Lazare and the Panthéon, and bisecting the old island city of Paris, represents very nearly the demarcation between the insurgent and the governmental moieties of the capital. All east of that line, with the exception of the Hôtel de Ville and its precincts, was a net-work of barricades, and every inch of the ground was disputed with desperate courage and pertinacity. The battle was begun by the National Guards at the Portes St. Denis and St. Martin, from which the barricaders were repulsed, after considerable loss on both sides. The fighting continued *all day on both sides* of the river, with great slaughter, but

little practical result, the insurgents being only driven from their more advanced positions to rally again in other places. About five o'clock, Cavaignac, accompanied by Lamartine, Pierre Bonaparte, and other representatives, led an attack in person against the Faubourg du Temple. For three hours the barricades withstood the fire of four pieces of cannon; and two generals and 400 soldiers were killed or wounded in the conflict. The troops behaved with admirable steadiness throughout the day, and the young soldiers of the Garde Mobile especially distinguished themselves. At four o'clock on Saturday morning the battle began again, and raged with intense vehemence on both sides of the river. Both parties had been reinforced during the night. Barricades, ten or twelve feet high, and of great strength, crossed the streets at every dozen paces; the houses too were, for the most part, in the possession of the insurgents, and covered with mattrasses, bags of sand, and other protections against musketry, from behind which showers of missiles were poured down on the assailants. At eleven o'clock the National Assembly passed a resolution declaring Paris in a state of siege, and appointing General Cavaignac Dictator, with unlimited powers, civil and military. The Executive Committee instantly resigned. Orders were then issued that the National Guard should occupy the streets, prevent the assemblage of crowds, and watch over the safety of private property. The rest of the inhabitants were to remain at home, and keep their windows closed, as a security to the soldiers in the streets that they should not be fired on from the houses. Every person out of uniform who was found abroad without a written pass was searched, and either taken prisoner or led by a National Guard to his own door. In pursuance of this judicious plan, many persons were arrested in the act of conveying ammunition and other aid to the insurgents. At noon Cavaignac sent a flag of truce to the insurgents, offering a general amnesty if they would yield before two o'clock. The offer was rejected without hesitation, or a moment's interruption of the firing. During the earlier part of the day, the fight raged chiefly in the city and on the southern bank of the river. To get possession of the Hôtel de Ville and the Préfecture of Police was a cardinal point with the insurgents. In Parisian warfare the loss of the Hôtel de Ville is what the loss of its colours is to

a regiment in the field; it was therefore a matter of primary importance to the Government to pierce the enemy's lines at that central point, towards which all his efforts converged. The church of St. Gervais was taken after a heavy cannonade; next the bridges were carried with great slaughter, and thus the means of communication between the insurgents of the two banks was completely cut off. Pursuing their success, the troops possessed themselves of the church of St. Severin, the head-quarters of the insurgents on that side. Their stronghold, the Panthéon, was carried at one o'clock at the point of the bayonet, after the great iron doors and railings had been broken by cannon. By four o'clock the Government was master of the whole left bank of the river. For four days altogether the fight continued with furious bravery on both sides. The number of killed and wounded on both sides, as ascertained by actual reckoning, exceeded 8000; but, besides these, many perished of whom no accurate account could be taken. Multitudes of dead bodies were cast into the Seine before they were yet cold. The remains of others were found by the reapers in the fields around Paris. Nearly 14,000 prisoners were made by the Government, and of these more than a thousand died of gaol-fever. Of eleven generals who commanded, two were killed, viz. Generals Négrier and Bréa; and six were wounded, five of them mortally; whilst the Archbishop of Paris, Affre, was also amongst the victims of the barricades. At the end of those four days, Cavaignac had triumphed, and was absolute ruler of the destinies of Paris and France. Had he been capable of mere selfish ambition, he might doubtless have secured himself for a while, at any rate, the possession of unlimited authority. He was true, however, to his republican principles, and laid down his dictatorship immediately after he had pacified the capital. His fellow-citizens, grateful for his conduct, and aware of the value of his continued services, appointed him, by their enthusiastic suffrages, President of the Council, with power to nominate his own ministry. He chose it at first from among the men connected with the "National" newspaper, the organ of the more reasonable section of pure Republicans; and he afterwards modified it by the admission of M. Dufaure and other members of the old dynastic Opposition; the Jules Favres, the Flocons, and the *rest of the "Réforme"* coterie, were removed from office, and

the Socialists, the "Montagne," and the Red Republicans of every sect, were deprived of the usurped power they had exercised. The garrison of Paris was augmented and maintained on a war footing. The *ateliers nationaux* were suppressed; but by a decree passed in the midst of the insurrection, three millions of francs were applied to the relief of the destitute inhabitants of Paris. The state of siege was prolonged until the 20th of October, and during its continuance eleven journals were suspended, including "La Presse," the editor of which, M. Emile Girardin, had been arrested on the 24th of June by order of General Cavaignac, and kept in confinement for eleven days. The trials of the insurgent prisoners occupied all the rest of the year, before ten military commissions, sitting simultaneously. Transportation was the penalty to which the guilty were made liable, by an *ex post facto* law passed on the 27th of June, the worst offenders being sent to Senegal, the rest to Algeria. The total number of the accused was 10,838, of whom 6237 were set at liberty, 4346 condemned to transportation, and 255 sent before courts-martial. Meanwhile the Assembly debated month after month the draught of the Constitution, and finally decided that a President should be elected by universal suffrage. Cavaignac was the candidate put forward by moderate and sincere Republicans. The result was as follows: — Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, 5,534,520; General Cavaignac, 1,448,302; Ledru Rollin, 371,431; Raspail, 36,964; Lamartine, 17,914; General Changarnier, 4687; Sundry votes, 12,434. Number of votes actually given, 7,426,252; votes disallowed, 23,219. Number of voters who went to the poll in the eighty-six departments of France, 7,449,471. The Republican general was succeeded by the nephew of the Emperor Napoleon, who, in his *coup d'état* of December 2, 1851, sent Cavaignac to Ham, where Louis Napoleon had himself previously been confined.

CHAMBERS, WILLIAM and ROBERT, popular Publishers and Essayists, are natives of Peebles, and were born, the first about 1800, and the second a year later. Having been thrown, while yet in boyhood, upon their own resources for support, they opened two bookshops in Leith Walk, Edinburgh, at the time when the novels of the still anonymous author *of* "Waverly," the critiques of Jeffrey, and the

airy sketches of Christopher North, were making Edinburgh the literary capital of the country. By slow degrees they increased their business, and with it their acquaintance with literary people. William, the elder, had meanwhile learnt the art of printing, and, to eke out the profits of his slender trade, he worked at case and press. It is related of him, that being in want of some large type, which were beyond his means of purchasing, he cut the letters in wood, and on another occasion, bound with his own hands the whole impression of a small volume which he had first printed on his own account. Robert, not less assiduous than his brother, and sharing in the enthusiasm which was then making the national element so powerful in Scottish literature, applied himself to collect materials for his first work, the "Traditions of Edinburgh," which appeared at the commencement of 1824, a work which, happily combining humour and romance with accurate detail, speedily became a universal favourite, and has since run through many editions. In 1826, Robert followed up his first volume by publishing the "Popular Rhymes of Scotland," which added greatly to his rising popularity. In the following year he published his "Picture of Scotland," and shortly produced, in rapid succession, three volumes of histories of the "Scottish Rebellions," two of a "Life of James I.," and three volumes of "Scottish Ballads and Songs." His "Biographical Dictionary of Eminent Scotchmen," in four large volumes, was commenced in 1832, and concluded in 1835. William had meanwhile not been idle. In 1830 he gave to the world the "Book of Scotland," intended to furnish to strangers and others a connected and comprehensive account of the distinctive usages, laws, and institutions of that part of the United Kingdom; the social system of Scotland, its courts, and laws of marriage and divorce, its schools, and religious and municipal organisation, are described in a vivid style, and with all the *amor patriæ* of a true Scot. In 1829, the brothers, for the first time, united in a joint enterprise, well suited to their peculiar talents, viz. the production of a "Gazetteer of Scotland." The work was completed and published in 1832, having been, it is said, written for the most part on the counter in the momentary intervals of retail business. In 1832, the brothers embarked in a larger partnership, in which all their commercial and literary resources would be drawn upon. In

that year the famous "Edinburgh Journal" was projected by the elder brother, to "supply," in the words of the first number, "intellectual food of the best kind, and in such a form and at such a price as must suit the convenience of every man in the British dominions." On the fourth of February, six weeks before the appearance of the "Penny Magazine," the Journal was to be seen in the hands of the public, whose appreciation and favour gave it an immediate circulation of 50,000. It gradually increased to 72,000, when, in 1844, its Scottish peculiarities having been gradually toned down to adapt it to the taste of a wider public, the "Journal" underwent a change of form, the folio being exchanged for the octavo sheet. The circulation again rose, and attained the height of 92,000 copies, and in this the twentieth year of its existence, it still retains a high rank in periodical literature. The success of the "Journal" induced the Messrs. Chambers to relinquish their separate businesses. For some time their premises were in Waterloo Place, Edinburgh, but in the end they fixed upon High Street as a place of business, where their handsome printing-office and warehouse stands, one of the best-visited sights of the northern capital. Still aiming at the objects for which the "Journal" had been projected, the brothers commenced, in 1834, the publication of "Information for the People," a series of popular, scientific, and historic treatises. On a similar plan they published the "Cyclopædia of English Literature," a most valuable work to the class for whose use it was designed, combining a survey of our literature from the earliest times to the present day, with biographical notes of authors, and extracts from their works. "The People's Edition of Standard English Works," "The Educational Course," Chambers' "Miscellany," and, lastly, Chambers' "Papers for the People" have since borne witness to the boldness, shrewd intelligence, and liberal aims of these remarkable men. At the present time, the establishment at Edinburgh employs nearly two hundred hands. Mr. Robert Chambers resides there, enjoying, in comparative wealth, the esteem of his fellow-citizens. The elder brother recently purchased a considerable estate near his birth-place, and when not called to the capital on business, is a laird amongst his tenantry, whose welfare he is consulting in some spirited improvements.

CHANGARNIER, GENERAL, a French military chieftain, for a long time the supporter of the same Louis Napoleon who subsequently sent him to gaol, December 2, 1851. The narrative of the General's military career is that of the operations of the French army in Algiers, as he has won every successive promotion from the lowest station on the field of battle. His political consideration dates from 1848, when he was made by the Provisional Government Governor-General of Algiers, and immediately after elected a member of the Constituent Assembly by the department of the Loire. He held his governorship but for a brief period, recognising in the disquieted capital the true field for a man of ability and energy. He was at Paris during the terrible scenes of June 1848, and took part in the suppression of the insurrection which led to Cavaignac's dictatorship. On the election of Louis Napoleon as President, Changarnier was appointed commander of the first military division, and owing to the ministerial apprehensions of insurrection, the command of the entire armed force of Paris, civic as well as military, was concentred in his hands. With these ample powers he crushed most completely the attempted insurrection of June 1849, and by the excellence of his dispositions accomplished this object almost without bloodshed. On the disappearance of imminent danger, his large powers and the prominence of his personal influence excited the jealousies of the President and his ministry, a feeling which, long denied, but ill concealed, betrayed itself in the resolve of the Government to displace General Neumayer, a personal friend and nominee of Changarnier, from the command of the first military division of Paris. Changarnier resisted, but was compelled to yield; he replied, however, by issuing to the soldiery an order forbidding them to indulge in party cries while under arms, an injunction obviously levelled at the cheers of "Vive l'Empereur!" "Vive Napoleon!" which had been raised at several reviews in the presence of Louis Napoleon. These contentions were prolonged until the President summoned up courage to remove the General by abolishing his command, and Changarnier became once more a simple representative of the people. He spoke occasionally from the tribune, and was several times put forward by the *Conservative Paris* press as a desirable candidate for the

Presidential election of 1852. M. Changarnier is forty-three years of age. He is a man whose favourite idea it is, that he could win immortality by invading England, and destroying London.

' CHAPLIN, W. JAMES, Railway Chairman, Capitalist, and M.P. Mr. Chaplin's history affords another instance of a man rising from the humblest ranks, by talent and energy, to a place amongst the most wealthy and influential men of his day. Before railways were in operation, Mr. Chaplin had succeeded in making himself one of the largest coach-proprietors in the kingdom. His establishment, from small beginnings, grew till he and his partner, Mr. Horne, just before the opening of the London and North-Western line, were proprietors of sixty-four stage-coaches, worked by fifteen hundred horses, and giving yearly returns of more than half-a-million sterling. A man who could build up such a business was not likely to let it sink under him, and, accordingly, we find him moving his capital from four-horse coaches into railway shares, and railway hotels, and railway omnibuses. His greatest stake was invested in the London and South-Western, of which he became a director, and afterwards chairman. He is regarded as less daring and "venturesome" in his policy than Mr. Glyn or Mr. Russell. In 1845, Mr. Chaplin was sheriff of London, when he took some pains to promote prison reform. In 1847 he was elected M.P. for Salisbury.

CLARENDON, GEORGE WILLIAM FREDERICK VILLIERS, EARL OF, Viceroy of Ireland, and brother to Charles Villiers, the persevering enemy of Corn-laws. Lord Clarendon was born Jan. 26, 1800; his father being brother to the second earl. Succeeded to the title (two uncles having died without children) in 1838. His first prominent public post was that of Minister Plenipotentiary to Madrid. He has been Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and Lord Privy Seal; and in 1846 was appointed President of the Board of Trade. The latter office he left (on the death of Lord Bessborough in 1847) to assume the more dignified office of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. He is a Free-trader, is tolerant in his religious views, and in general politics may be termed a Liberal Whig. He is descended from the

brother of Villiers, the favourite of James I. and from Clarendon the historian.

CLAY, HENRY, an American Statesman, was born in Hanover County, Virginia, April 12, 1777,—amid the very dangers of the revolution,—the son of a needy clergyman. His boyhood was spent in aiding to support a widowed mother; his youth, in the office of the Court of Chancery, at Richmond. His vivacity and genius attracted the notice of Chancellor Whyte, Governor Brooke, and other eminent jurists, by whose advice he addressed himself to the study of the law. Intense application fitted him for admission in one year, and before the age of majority he obtained his diploma, and followed his mother and sister into Kentucky. He began his career at Lexington, and was soon known as the most powerful advocate of the West. Before he had been ten years in the profession he led the bar of his State. In 1803 he consented to serve in the Legislature, and at once took rank with the oldest and best. In three years he was sent from Kentucky to Congress, and on his return again entered the Legislature and was made Speaker. Two years afterwards he was returned to the Senate at Washington, but withdrew, in 1811, to enter the lower house, as offering a more commanding position. On his entrance he was placed in the Speaker's chair, and became the guiding hand of his country, then torn by dissensions, and uneasy in her relations with Europe. Clay insisted upon war with England, which he fiercely urged. When Madison, at its conclusion, was congratulated upon its successful conduct and termination, he replied, "To the right arm of the administration, to Clay, all is due." He was sent to Ghent, to assist in the negotiation with Great Britain, and had the merit of always being prepared with the most practicable proposition. Peace restored, he resumed the Speaker's chair, and, in 1825, was made Secretary of State. In this capacity he negotiated the treaties with Russia, Denmark, Prussia, Austria, and the South American States. He struck a fatal blow at legalised piracy under the name of "letters of marque;" liberalised commercial intercourse, by admitting foreign nations to the direct trade; procured the intervention of Russia to obtain from the Porte

the liberation of Greece, and with Spain to acknowledge the independence of South America. At the age of seventy-four, Mr. Clay unites still the fire of youth with the wisdom of age, and is the admired and revered counsellor of his country.

COBDEN, RICHARD, M.P., one of the Free-trade party, is a native of Midhurst, Sussex, where he was born about the year 1800. His father occupied a small farm, and the future Member of Parliament left home at an early age to take a post in a London warehouse, where by steadiness and industry he rose through successive grades, till he had gained a thorough knowledge of the business, and stood high in the esteem of his employers. His notions of self-improvement included a belief in the value of foreign travel, and he contrived to combine business with pleasure, and make a tour through the United States, and another over an important part of Europe. Fortune generally favours the energetic and skilful, and he was enabled to begin business for himself in Lancashire, in partnership with Messrs. Sherreff and Foster. In his new sphere he became prosperous, and ultimately gained considerable commercial reputation for producing a more tasteful style of printed fabrics than most of his rivals in the Manchester trade. He found time also to use his pen, and drew much attention to himself and to his views by a pamphlet entitled "England, Ireland, and America," and subsequently by another on "Russia." The latter was intended to dissipate the belief in the vast resources of the Czar, and to relieve the public mind from the fears of that power which other public writers and speakers were fond of exciting. Mr. Cobden strove to show that the real way to render the great northern state friendly towards England was to establish a free and profitable trade between the two countries. The doctrines thus supported met fierce denunciation in the Protectionist press, and the struggle soon afterwards commenced which ultimately resulted in the repeal of the corn-laws. The first great blow struck at the tax upon food was levelled by Col. T. Peyronnet Thompson, in his "Catechism of the Corn-laws," published originally in the "Westminster Review;" the final *coup* to the tax was given by Peel; the intermediate fight between these two extremes *was mainly led* by Cobden, as the chief of the

Anti-Corn-law League. The first town that sent Mr. Cobden to parliament was Stockport, for which place he was returned in 1841, having four years before unsuccessfully contested that not over-pure borough. His straightforward business-like way of dealing with facts in his speeches, and the courage with which he stated his views, quickly gained for him the "ear of the House," which he has ever since retained. From the small borough of Stockport he has made the wide leap to the large and independent constituency of the West Riding, whose selection of him as their member gave a very significant indication of what England really thought about free trade. After the struggle was over, his political friends rewarded Mr. Cobden by raising a public subscription in his behalf, by which upwards of 70,000*l.* was raised and handed over to him. On this being done, Mr. Cobden gave up business as a cotton-printer and devoted himself exclusively to politics. The corn laws being repealed, he now gives a large share of his support to the party who are promoting what is called the Peace League, and whose efforts are devoted to the suppression of war. He advocates, also, the ballot, extension of the suffrage, short parliaments, financial reform, and the repeal of the taxes on knowledge.

COLE, HENRY, Public Writer, and one of the authors of the plan for establishing an Exposition of Industry in London, which ultimately, with the assistance of Prince Albert and others, grew into the Great Exhibition of the Industry of *All Nations*. Mr. Cole was a laborious member of the Executive Committee at the Crystal Palace, and on the close of that successful effort was rewarded with the decoration of the civil branch of the Order of the Bath, besides a handsome sum of money, which he had fully earned. Mr. Cole had long before been known as the promoter of improvements in the arts, particularly such as give increased elegance to articles of domestic ornament and utility. He was the editor, some years since, of a newspaper called the "Guide," and the author of numerous small works published under the name of "Felix Summerly." He was the promoter of the "Art Manufactures," and is now the editor of the "Journal of Design." Some *efforts he made to* reform the Record Office secured him a

post there, to which he will probably return, when the Crystal Palace and the questions it has given rise to are disposed of.

COMBE, GEORGE, the great champion of Philosophical Phrenology, was born in Edinburgh in 1788. Mr. Combe was educated in the law, and became a Writer to the Signet, as the Scottish attorneys are called, and practised for twenty-five years. The opinions of Gall and Spurzheim attracting his notice, he studied the then new doctrines preached by those physiologists, and becoming convinced that they had a basis of important truth, he pursued the subject, and to promote its general elucidation founded and edited the "Phrenological Journal," afterwards conducted by his relative, Mr. Cox. The results of his investigation were, at length, given to the world in a book entitled "The Constitution of Man, considered in relation to External Objects." This at once attracted great attention amongst a certain circle of readers, one of whom, Mr. Henderson, subsequently bequeathed a sum of money to be expended in the production of a very cheap edition of the book. The novelty of this circumstance drew to the subject an additional amount of attention; the cheap edition was a *very* cheap edition; it sold; caught the ear of the people; edition after edition was exhausted, until, at length, it has been questioned whether next after the "Bible," "Pilgrim's Progress," and "Robinson Crusoe," a greater number of copies have not been purchased than of any other English book. Mr. Combe lives now in Edinburgh.

COOPER, THOMAS SIDNEY, A.R.A., born 26th September, 1803, at Canterbury. His parents were in humble circumstances and wished to apprentice him to some trade, but having a strong desire to become an artist, he objected, and was allowed to have his own way. He sketched long without instruction, taking for subjects the buildings of his native city and the country around it, and gaining a precarious reward by selling his drawings to strangers. Accident gained him an introduction to the scene-painter of the Canterbury Theatre, then in bad health; and this humble artist dying soon afterwards, Cooper succeeded him. He was then

only seventeen; and for the next ten years he gained a moderate income, at times scene-painting, and at times a teacher of drawing. He had for awhile studied at the British Museum and in the Angerstein Gallery, and subsequently at the Royal Academy; but at neither would his circumstances permit him to remain so long as his artistic need required. In 1827 he set out from Dover to Calais, to seek fortune abroad, and literally "sketched his way" from the French port to the Belgian capital; paying tavern bills by likenesses of hosts and hostesses. At Brussels his talents secured him patrons and employment; and there being settled, he married and enjoyed the friendship of various Flemish artists; and there, too, his pencil was first directed to the study of landscape and the branch of art — animal painting — which subsequently secured him the patronage of Mr. Vernon, reputation, and abundant and profitable employment. He first "exhibited" in the Suffolk Street Gallery in 1833.

CORBIN, M., appointed in Oct. 1851 Minister of Justice in France, was procureur-général at Bourges, in which capacity he distinguished himself by his activity and zeal in the legal investigations relative to the Socialist insurrection in the Valley of the Loire. M. Corbin was formerly procureur-général at Angers, and is distinguished by his firmness and talent in speaking. On his appointment, the Legitimists claimed him as an adherent of their party.

CORMENIN, M., an eminent French Political Writer, was born in 1789. At the age of twenty-two he was called by Napoleon to the Council of State. He was made a baron by Louis XVIII., and a viscount by Charles X. He was a member of the Chamber from 1828 to 1846, and in all these positions distinguished himself as much by independence of character as by originality of genius. Cormenin is by profession an *avocat;* in politics he has found himself opposed to every party in turn where egotism, privilege, or administrative rapacity, was to be resisted; but the cause of social and political progress has no more consistent friend than he. He has written the best treatise on administrative law *yet published in France;* his "Book of Orators" is the

delight of all Frenchmen who can read. Logic, humour, and profound knowledge, combine to make him, perhaps, the most powerful writer in France.

CORWIN, THOMAS, of Ohio, an Ameritan Senator, appointed Secretary to the Treasury in President Fillmore's first cabinet. Mr. Corwin is about fifty-one years of age. Rising from humble life, he became distinguished as a lawyer, and was elected a representative to Congress, from the Warren district, in 1831; he continued a member of the House until 1840, when he was chosen Governor of Ohio, in October of that year, by a large majority. Mr. Corwin continued Governor but two years; Wilson Shannon, his Democratic predecessor, then succeeding him, in 1842. The Whigs having a majority in the Legislature of Ohio, in 1845, elected Mr. Corwin United States Senator, to succeed Benjamin Tappan, Democrat. Mr. Corwin has been long known in Congress as an able debater, and an advocate of the Whig measures of policy.

COUSIN, VICTOR, the most eminent of living French metaphysical Philosophers, was born at Paris in 1791. He was for some time a tutor at the Ecole Normale, where he subsequently held the professorship of Philosophy. In 1812 he published his celebrated French translation of Plato, and in 1815 was appointed by Royer Collard to deliver the lectures on the History of Philosophy in the "Faculté des Lettres" of the University. On the return of Napoleon from Elba he enrolled himself with the Royalist volunteers, but the misuse of restored power disgusted him with the Bourbons, and he was often heard to declaim from the professor's chair in praise of the lost freedom of his nation. This conduct, and the enthusiastic applause it called forth in his hearers, drew upon him the attention of the Government, and in 1820 he received peremptory orders to discontinue his lectures. Restored thus to leisure, he applied himself to philosophical researches, and shortly published the yet inedited writings of Proclus, and a complete edition of the works of Descartes. He also conducted the education of the son of the Duke of Montobello, with whom, in 1834, he travelled in Germany. His freedom of speech made him here an object of suspicion, and at the instance of the Prussian

Government he was arrested at Dresden, and brought to Berlin. After a brief imprisonment he was allowed to depart for Paris. In 1828 he was permitted to resume his lectures, and continued to deliver them until the advent of Louis Philippe made Guizot a minister, when Cousin, his friend, became Inspector-General of Education. In 1831 he visited Germany by request of the Government, and next year published his celebrated report on the state of education among the population of that country. Under the brief administration of M. Thiers he was six months Minister of Public Instruction. The philosophical career of Cousin exhibits a singular progress through almost every leading metaphysical system. He started by teaching the existence of the *Ideas* of his favourite Plato, then became the approving expositor of the Scotch philosophers. Presently he was enthusiastic for Kant and the critical philosophy, which he abandoned for the Alexandrian Proclus, who, in turn, was forsaken for Stegel and Schelling. In his later works, M. Cousin justifies himself by professing an impartial and universal eclecticism, which seeks truth wherever it is to be found, and regards all good as but truth in an incomplete form. To pick out the scattered materials of truth from all systems and combine them in a whole is, therefore, M. Cousin's professed task. His success or failure we must leave to the judgment of the public. His published works, besides those already mentioned, are, "Philosophical Fragments," 1826; "New Fragments," 1829; "Cours de Philosophie Morale," of 1815–20, 6 vols. (including the "History of Modern Philosophy," the "Sources of Ideas," and the Sensational, the Scotch, and the Critical Schools), and the "Cours de Philosophie" of 1828–29, in three volumes. Cousin is also the translator of Tenneman's abridgement of his own "History of Philosophy," and editor of the complete works of Abelard.

COX, DAVID, Painter in Water-colours, born at Birmingham April 29, 1783. Wales is Cox's field of battle. He is said to have invariably bent his steps yearly towards Llanwrst and Bettws-y-coed for the last five-and-thirty years. The very stones are christened after him; as you wind out of Capel Curig, a little turret, in which a stone-seat is inserted, bulges from the walled road-side, and is known as *Cox's Pulpit*. One of the greatest favourites amongst our

water-colour painters, the public and the artists alike admire this veteran painter. His drawings have the fresh impromptu look of nature, and never savour of home manufacture. His hand would seem to be rapid, and his eye certain, and the delighted beholder wonders where the secret is, and how, with strokes so rough, and on such small spaces of paper, air and distance, storm and sunshine, should be described so lucidly. The sign of the "Oak," at Bettwys, was painted by Cox.

CREMIEUX, M., a French Legislator and ex-Minister of Justice under the Provisional Government of France in 1848. Crémieux is a Jew, but has always advocated perfect freedom of conscience. He was for years a member of the Chamber of Deputies before the revolution overturned Louis Philippe, and always voted with the Reform party against Guizot. He was an energetic supporter of M. Duvergier d'Haurranne's annual motion for the exclusion of paid functionaries (the Ministers excepted) from the Chamber; and he advocated the most comprehensive principles of free trade. When the Game-law, initiated in the Chamber of Peers, came on for discussion in the Chamber of Deputies, Crémieux gave it his most vigorous opposition; but, finding that the Ministers were resolved to carry it by means of their majority, he fought hard to procure the suppression of the clause which exempted Crown lands from the provisions of the measure. In this aim he was successful; but the Peers restored the obnoxious paragraph. When Duchâtel made his memorable declaration, to the effect that no reform would be granted, and that the Government had resolved to put down the Reform banquets, Crémieux called out, "There is blood in this!" and he prophesied too truly. It was he, also, who, encountering Louis Philippe and the ex-Queen Amélie in the Place de la Concorde, on the Thursday of their flight, recommended them to depart immediately, "no hope for them being left." He then proceeded to the Chamber of Deputies, where he advocated the formation of a Provisional Government.

CRESWICK, T., Painter, born at Sheffield in 1811. Perhaps more than any landscape-painter, ancient or modern, Mr. Creswick has united *the perfection* of aërial perspective in his dis-

tances, with precision in the foregrounds. He seems to take a secret pleasure in unravelling the mysteries of intricate groves as they overarch the trout stream, of which he renders the evanescent form and colour with the hand of one who has spent many long summers of careful thought and observation amidst such scenes. The beholder has a perfect confidence in the painter whose happy gift it is to receive and translate nature with an admirable fidelity and truthfulness. Surely the landscape-painters ought to be amongst the happiest people in the world; and as one looks at these charming works of Mr. Creswick, one fancies the painter happy in his serene occupation, amidst the beautiful scene; tracing the course of the river, the forms of rocks, the play of the sunshine amidst the leaves. Mr. Creswick was elected Associate of the Royal Academy in 1842, and Academician in 1851.

CRITTENDEN, J. J., of Kentucky, an American Senator and Minister, was appointed Attorney-General on the accession of Mr. Fillmore to the Presidency of the United States. Mr. Crittenden is about sixty years old, and entered Congress as a member of the Senate in 1817, serving then but two years, with Isham Talbot for his colleague. From 1819 to 1835 he continued in the practice of his profession, as one of the first lawyers of Kentucky, residing principally at Frankfort, and occasionally representing his county in the State Legislature. In 1835 he was again elected to the United States Senate, and continued to serve in that body until March 1841, when he was appointed Attorney-General by President Harrison. On the outbreak of the Whigs with John Tyler, in September 1841, Mr. Crittenden resigned with the other members of the Cabinet, except Mr. Webster, and retired to private life, from which, however, he was soon called by the Legislature, to again take his seat in the United States Senate, in 1842. He was also elected Senator for another term of six years, from March 1843, but, in 1848, having received the Whig nomination for Governor of Kentucky, he retired from the Senate, and was elected by a large majority to the executive office he now holds, the term expiring in September 1852. The Whig party generally, throughout the Union, consider Mr. Crittenden as one of their champions. He is a relative of the Colonel Crittenden who lost his life in the Cuban *affair under Gener*al Lopez.

CROKER, THE RIGHT HON. JOHN WILSON, once the hope of the old Tory party, but more honourably known in letters, was born in the county of Galway, in 1780, but is of English descent. His father was surveyor-general in Ireland, and was a man of ability. The son was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, was called to the bar in 1802, and in 1807, having been retained as counsel at an election for Downpatrick, he was eventually returned as member for that borough, and from that time to the year 1832 sat in the House, representing for five years the University of Dublin. For one-and-twenty years, namely, from 1809 to 1830, he held the office of Secretary to the Admiralty; and in 1828 was sworn of the Privy Council. His industry, his boldness and acuteness in debate, combined with great power of ridicule and complete mastery of details, made him an invaluable member of his party, and marked him out for higher office in some future Tory cabinet. It was, however, his misfortune, that his uncommon shrewdness failed to appreciate either the state of the nation or the true policy of Conservatism; for, in the moment of the passing of the Reform-bill, he declared that "he would never sit in a reformed House of Commons;" and from that time he has been politically defunct. His literary career presents him in a more pleasing aspect. His first publication, a volume, called "Familiar Epistles to Frederick E. Jones, Esq.," gave earnest of the then power of sarcasm which marked his more mature productions. It was succeeded by a short pamphlet, which, under the title of "An Intercepted Letter from Canton," gave a satirical picture of the City of Dublin. His next efforts were, "Songs of Trafalgar;" "The Battle of Talavera;" a "Sketch of Ireland, Past and Present;" "Letters on the Naval War with America;" "Stories from the History of England, for Children," the model (as Sir Walter Scott states in his preface) of the "Tales of a Grandfather;" "Reply to the Letters of Malachi Malagrowther;" "The Suffolk Papers;" "Military Events of the French Revolution of 1830;" a translation of "Bassompierre's Embassy to England;" an edited version of the "Letters of Lady Hervey," and of Lord Hervey's "Memoirs of the Reign of George the Second;" and an annotated edition of "Boswell's Life of Johnson." Croker's successful parliamentary and official career brought him into intimacy with the

most distinguished literary lights of the day; and in 1809, in conjunction with Scott and Canning, he started the "Quarterly Review," which has ever since owed some of its most vigorous papers to his pen. His "Boswell" was hailed as a truly valuable contribution to the literature of our country, and raised great expectations of the fruit of its author's future leisure; it might, however, have been written by an industrious man with a tithe of Croker's ability. He was once asked at a party by a blue-stocking countess, if he had brought out any new work: "Nothing," he replied, "since the last Mutiny Act." It is now twenty years since the world received any gift from his pen more important than articles in the "Quarterly Review," which seem likely to contain all the observations he desires to make on the history of his own time.

CROLY, REV. DR. GEORGE, Poet and Clergyman, was born in Ireland, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and ordained in the Church of England. His verses are more remarkable for correctness than vigour, and are not very popular. He enjoys the rectory of St. Stephen's, Walbrook, London, and is understood to indulge in "writing for the newspapers." He was formerly connected with the "Britannia," a Tory weekly paper. The interior of the church in which his sermons are delivered is said to be the masterpiece of Sir Christopher Wren. Dr. Croly's best work is a romance, "Salathiel, or the Wandering Jew." His chief poems are "Paris in 1815;" "The Angel of the World;" and "Gems from the Aubigné." He has likewise written a Life of Burke, and a work on the Apocalypse of St. John.

CRUIKSHANK, GEORGE, a popular Artist, whose works have afforded boundless amusement, was born in London about the year 1794. His father was an engraver and caricaturist, and a taste for the humorous was early developed in the son. After studying for some years under his parent, he obtained admission to the Royal Academy as a student under Fuseli, but only attended one course of lectures there, the shortness of his sight preventing him from seeing the outline of the illustrative figures. Success in some juvenile histrionic amusements led him to think at one time of adopting the stage as a profession; and upon

one occasion he played at the Haymarket Theatre for the benefit of a friend. His success in caricature sketches, however, diverted him from this intention, and upon the death of his father he devoted himself to the production of those sketches for which he has since become famous. Among other works he was engaged to make caricatures for a periodical called the "Scourge," and also for the "Meteor." Soon after he formed a connexion with Mr. Hone, whose political squibs he illustrated with a force and spirit that drew crowds round every window in which they were exhibited. "The House that Jack built," and "Non mi ricordo," are still vividly remembered by the elder half of the present generation. When the progress of reform had brought more deserving ministers into power, the field of political caricature became too narrow for Cruikshank's abilities, and he then, in conjunction with his brother Robert, brought out his designs of "Life in London." To "Life in London" succeeded "Life in Paris," the production of Mr. George Cruikshank alone, but its popularity was brief in comparison with his predecessor. Mr. Cruikshank was next engaged in executing etchings for a volume of popular German stories, which contributed considerably to his reputation as a humorist. His next was the "Points of Humour," which became the occasion of a favourable eulogium on his talents in "Blackwood's Magazine." His fame as an illustrator of books was now complete, and his assistance came to be considered indispensable to works pretending to humour. Amongst those for which he furnished designs may be mentioned "Mornings at Bow Street," "Peter Schlemil," "Italian Tales," "Hans of Iceland," "Tales of Irish Life," "Punch and Judy," "Tom Thumb," "Johnny Gilpin," "The Epping Hunt," "Three Courses and a Dessert," "Greenwich Hospital," "Tim Bobbin," &c., in all of which the ludicrous was irresistibly apparent. Of his latest works, six prints representing the evils of drunkenness in all their hideousness, and published under the title of "The Bottle," have been most successful. It is related, that the study and observation on which these delineations were founded made so profound an impression upon the mind of the artist, that he was led to embrace the principles of total abstinence from intoxicating drinks, of which he is now a frequent and

the most talented advocate. His speeches invariably teem with happy and amusing observations, of which an instance may be given. At a recent *soirée* of the Manchester Athenæum, Mr. Cruikshank made the following humorous allusion to the anticipations of his first visit to the new Lancashire city:—"He had been told that at Manchester it was always raining, and that the people walking the streets were the most hideous set of wretches that could be conceived. Accordingly, finding that as an artist the trip might be professionally profitable, he had provided himself with relays of umbrellas and pencils. But he could assure them he had found the weather very good, and the men and women not half ugly enough to suit him." When Mr. Charles Dickens, to assist the establishment of a charitable institution, organised a series of amateur dramatic entertainments, Mr. Cruikshank became one of the performers.

CUBITT, SIR WILLIAM, Engineer (knighted for the share he had in the construction of the Crystal Palace), was born in Norfolk in 1785, where his father had a mill, in which the future engineer worked. When he gained this conspicuous honour, those who had known him in his earlier days began to boast of his acquaintance. Not many years since (says one of these) Cubitt was in the employ of the Messrs. Ransome, of Ipswich. The first steam-engine in Ipswich was erected by him; and the gas-works of the town were constructed under his direction. He invented the patent windmill sails, now almost universally adopted; and many an incorrigible rogue has done anything but bless him for contriving the treadmills in our prisons. He was the engineer who was employed to erect the present Stoke bridge after the old structure had been swept away by the floods. Soon after the completion of this work he left Ipswich for the metropolis, but not until he had given evidence of the possession of a very high order of engineering talent. Cubitt undertook the task of cutting a railway passage along Shakspere's Cliff, at Dover, which he did, after successfully exploding 18,000 lbs. of gunpowder in one blast; and was subsequently chosen engineer of the South-Eastern line, which he completed. Having been elected a member of the Royal Society

of Civil Engineers, he was subsequently appointed its president; a position he still fills. Sir William Cubitt also planned the great landing stage at Liverpool.

CULLEN, PAUL, Roman Catholic Archbishop of Armagh, and a notable enemy of the Copernican system of the universe, is by birth an Irishman, but early left his native country to reside in Rome, where he remained thirty years, during a considerable portion of which he was director of the Irish department of the Papal government. The death of Dr. Crolly, titular Archbishop of Armagh, which took place in 1849, was followed by a difference of opinion amongst the Irish suffragans as to the nomination of his successor. This want of harmony gave Pio Nono an opportunity of appointing a tried ultramontanist in the room of the elect of the National Church; and Paul Cullen was consecrated Roman Catholic Primate of all Ireland February 24, 1850. The prelate lost no time in making good his authority in the national affairs, and in a "pastoral" condemned the mixed system of education represented by the government schools and newly-founded colleges, supporting his denunciations by appeals to the supreme and unquestionable dicta of the Pope. Passive and implicit obedience to the see of Rome has been the key-note of all the publications and addresses of this priest, who has as yet failed to take the usual oath of allegiance to the sovereign of these realms. Dr. Cullen aspires to be a scientific as well as an ecclesiastical authority, having written a work affirming the immobility of the earth, on the ground of his interpretation of theological records. If confidence be an element of success, the Pope must be held happy in having an agent who expects to refute the physical demonstrations of Copernicus and Kepler by such evidence.

CUNNINGHAM, PETER, Author, son of Allan Cunningham the poet, and brother of Capt. Cunningham, author of the "History of the Sikhs," born in Pimlico on the 7th of April, 1816. Peter Cunningham has for years employed the leisure afforded by a post in the public service—in the Audit Office, Somerset House—as Charles Lamb employed similar hours—by writing for the press; but his first important distinctive work was the "Hand-book for London" (2d ed. 1850),

in which he has contrived to arrange, upon a new and convenient plan, a greater amount of curious information than was ever before collected in a single work on the metropolis. He has been a contributor to the "Daily News," the "Athenæum," the "Gentleman's Magazine," and other prints, and by his talents and companionable qualities has gained and enjoys the friendship of most of the popular writers of the day.

D.

DAWSON, GEORGE, a popular Lecturer, was born in 1821, in the parish of St. Pancras, where his father conducted an extensive academy. After receiving his education from his father, he proceeded to the University of Glasgow; and after the usual study, took the degree of M.A. He was intended for the ministry of the Baptist Nonconformists, and having remained at home some time, an opening occurred at Birmingham in 1844, and he became the minister of Mount Zion Chapel in that town. The peculiarities of his ministrations, and chiefly a studied disregard of the merely conventional usages of the sacred office, alienated from him a portion of the congregation of Mount Zion Chapel; while the independence of character in which these traits had their origin gained for him a large circle of adherents. A separation took place in the congregation, when the majority seceded with the minister. A subscription was immediately commenced for the erection of a new chapel, in August 1847, and the edifice was opened as "The Church of the Saviour." Mr. Dawson has not put forward any peculiarities of doctrine, but rather makes an earnest desire for truth the great test of a Christian spirit. Mr. Dawson is, however, more widely known as a literary lecturer than as a preacher, and in this capacity has attained the very highest popularity. His subjects are of the most varied character, his scope of illustration wide as nature, his language the best Saxon, and his style abounding in humour. No man has studied the intellectual wants and capabilities of the middle classes of this country to more purpose than George *Dawson, and to this must* be ascribed his pre-eminent suc-

cess. He has written little, but for some time had the credit of writing a series of articles which appeared in the "Birmingham Mercury," an unsuccessful newspaper.

DELAINE, JOHN, Journalist, Editor of "The Times" newspaper; educated at Cambridge, where he took his degree. As the responsible head of the most widely-circulated daily paper in London, Mr. Delaine probably exercises as great a power for good,—or mischief,—as any man in England.

DENMAN, THOMAS, LORD, a retired Judge and Legislator, was born in London in 1779, the son of an eminent physician. He received his education at Eton and St. John's, Cambridge, and was called to the bar in 1806 by the Society of Lincoln's Inn. He travelled the Midland Circuit, and there, as at Westminster, soon attained to a large practice, and won his way by a manly and simple eloquence, combined with great industry and legal knowledge. In 1818 he was elected member of parliament in the Liberal interest for the borough of Wareham; and in the following year commenced a career of parliamentary activity by exposing and denouncing the interference of the Duke of Marlborough in the city of Oxford election. The death of George III. occasioning a dissolution of parliament, Mr. Denman became a candidate for Nottingham, and was returned for that town after one of the severest contests on record. In 1820 he became Solicitor-general to Queen Caroline; and on the 6th of July appeared before the House of Lords in that capacity, with Brougham, to support the petition of the queen. Their labours procured the withdrawal of the Bill of Pains and Penalties, which was announced by Lord Liverpool Nov. 10, 1820. In the next session Denman animadverted in parliament upon the conduct of Judge Best, who had interrupted and fined a prisoner three times for expressions employed in making his defence, and succeeded in obtaining fairer treatment of political prisoners. In August 1820 he defended Major Cartwright, in his celebrated trial at Warwick; and in 1823, Sir Francis Burdett, at Leicester. From this time until the dissolution of 1826, he was actively supporting the Reform motions of Lord John Russell and others, and offering a strenuous opposition to the Alien, Insurrection,

and other repressive bills introduced by government. In 1826 he received the silk gown and patent of precedency, which only his persistent attachment to the cause of Queen Caroline had prevented his earlier obtaining. In the next parliament Denman had no seat, having contested the representation of Leicester without success; but at the general election which succeeded the death of George IV. he was again returned for Nottingham. He bore an active part in the discussions which preceded the passing of the Reform-bill, as a rule reserving his powers to repel the spirited attacks of Sir Charles Wetherell. He became Attorney-General under the Grey government; and in 1832 was raised to the Chief-Justiceship of the Court of King's Bench, which he held until the spring of 1850, having, in 1834, been created a peer. As a judge, he was greatly esteemed for the high independence of his character, which was exhibited on the remarkable occasion in his resistance to the encroachments of the House of Commons upon the judicial authority; and in the matter of Stockdale *v.* Hansard, when a high executive officer was imprisoned for carrying out a judgment of his court; and on O'Connell's appeal to the Lords in error, when his judgment secured the liberation of the appellant. It was upon this occasion that he made use of the memorable words, a part of which has since become a favourite formula of denunciation, —"Let practices like these prevail, and trial by jury will become a mockery, a delusion, and a snare." He has published various tracts on passing events, particularly in 1848, in a warm denunciation of the slave trade. All his writings have been in favour of civil and religious liberty. In 1849 he was afflicted with paralysis, which compelled him, March 1, 1850, to resign his office.

DENMARK, CHARLES-CHRISTIAN-FREDERICK, KING OF, was born on the 6th of October, 1808, and succeeded his father, the late king. His first wife was the Princess Wilhelmina Mary of Denmark, from whom he was divorced in 1837; and his second the Princess Caroline of Mecklenburg Strelitz, from whom he was also divorced in 1846. He had no issue by either wife. This fact has been productive of the most disastrous results to the state of Denmark proper *and also to the Duchies* of Schleswig Holstein, of which the

king is duke. The kingdom of Denmark at present consists of three, or even of four parts, each claiming different origin, different rights, different allegiance, and looking to a very different future. First, there is Denmark proper, being the Isles and Jutland. At the other extremity of the kingdom is Holstein, German in its history, language, leanings, and even in its *régime*, for it makes part of the German empire, and entitles the King of Denmark to a vote in the Diet of Frankfort. Of course there exist strong repulsion and hostility between Holstein and Denmark proper, which alone would considerably embarrass the working of a common government. But this embarrassment is multiplied tenfold by the existence of a province between them,— that of Schleswig, which is half Danish, half German, over which Denmark has claims, and to which Holstein has many rights of commerce and affinity. So that, given the separation of Holstein and Denmark, there remains the question unto which of them Schleswig shall belong?—a question which involves in its solution not only the fate of the duchies, but that of the Danish monarchy altogether. If these ill-joined and ill-fated wheels of the political machinery of the kingdom worked ill enough during the old system of government, still their mutual jarring or stopping was comparatively little felt. But true liberalism made progress, and even constitutions were granted, and a certain liberty of the press enjoyed. The attempts of the Radical party to extend and confirm the privileges of the people led to the revolution of Copenhagen in 1848, and the resolution of Holstein and Schleswig to secure themselves in their comparative independence, to knit closer their connexion with Germany, and uphold the rights of the Duke of Augustenberg (*see* A. Duke of), led to the disastrous Schleswig-Holstein war. The question of succession remains still unsettled.

DE QUINCEY, THOMAS, a Philosophical Writer. In the celebrated "Confessions of an Opium-Eater" Mr. De Quincey has treated the events of his early life in a manner which makes that subject for ever his own. His literary character and career are far less startling and amusing. He has a most extensive knowledge of German literature, which he preceded Carlyle in introducing to British readers. He has written some excellent translations from Jean Paul Richter and Lessing, which appeared respectively in the

old "London Magazine," and in "Blackwood." A paper on "The Knocking in Macbeth" is greatly admired, as well as a "Lecture on Murder, Considered as one of the Fine Arts." He wrote many masterly articles in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and papers innumerable in the Magazines already mentioned, and in "Tait," in which his "Confessions" originally appeared. Metaphysical discussion, philosophical criticism, and biography, are the classes of subjects in which Mr. De Quincey excels, and to which his masculine, clear, and logical style is eminently adapted.

DICKENS, CHARLES, the most Popular Writer of his time, was born in February 1812, at Landport, Portsmouth. His father, the late Mr. John Dickens, in the earlier part of his life, enjoyed a post in the Navy Pay Department, the duties of which required that he should reside from time to time in different sea-ports,—now at Plymouth, now at Portsmouth, and then at Sheerness. "In the glorious days" of the war with France, these towns were full of life, bustle, and character; and the father of "Boz" was at times fond of dilating upon the strange scenes he had witnessed. One of his stories described a sitting-room he once enjoyed at Blue-town, Sheerness, abutting on the theatre. Of an evening he used to sit in this room, and could hear what was passing on the stage, and join in the chorus of "God save the King," and "Britannia rules the Waves,"—then the favourite songs of Englishmen. The war being at an end, amongst those who left the public service with a pension was the father of our novelist. Coming to London, he subsequently found lucrative employment for his talents on the press as a reporter of parliamentary debates. Charles Dickens may, therefore, be said to have been in his youth familiarised with "copy;" and when his father, with parental anxiety for his future career, took the preliminary steps for making his son an attorney, the dreariness of the proposed occupation fell so heavily upon the mind of the future author that he induced his father to permit him to resign the law and join the parliamentary corps of a daily newspaper. His first engagement was on "The True Sun," an ultra-liberal paper, then carrying on a fierce *struggle for* existence, from the staff of which he after-

wards passed into the reporting ranks of the "Morning Chronicle." On that paper he obtained reputation as a first-rate man,—his reports being exceedingly rapid, and no less correct. In the columns of the "Chronicle" he soon gave proofs of other talents than those of a reporter; for in the evening edition of that journal appeared the "Sketches of English Life and Character," afterwards collected to form the two well-known volumes of "Sketches by Boz," published respectively in 1836 and 1837. These at once attracted considerable notice, and obtained great success; and the publisher of the collected edition, anxious to make the most of the prize which had fallen to his lot, gladly came to an arrangement with Mr. Dickens and Seymour, the comic draughtsman, the one to write and the other to illustrate a book which should exhibit the adventures of a party of cockney sportsmen. Hence the appearance of "Pickwick," a book which made its author's reputation and the publishers' fortune. After the work had commenced poor Seymour committed suicide, and Mr. Hablot K. Browne was selected to continue the illustrations, which he did under the signature of "Phiz." Meanwhile Mr. Dickens had courted and married the daughter of Mr. George Hogarth, then—and now—a musical writer, a man of considerable attainments, and who, in his earlier days, whilst a Writer to the Signet in Edinburgh, enjoyed the intimate friendship of Sir Walter Scott, Jeffrey, and the other literary notables at that day adorning the Modern Athens. The great success of "Pickwick" brought down upon its author demands from all sides for another work, and "Boz" agreed to write "Nicholas Nickleby," to be published in monthly parts. In the prefatory notices, which give additional value to the cheap and elegant reprint of the works of Dickens, we are indulged with slight glimpses of his own recollections, personal and literary. Thus, in the introduction to "Nicholas Nickleby," when alluding to the portrait of Squeers, he says, "I cannot call to mind, now, how I came to hear about Yorkshire schools when I was not a very robust child, sitting in bye-places, near Rochester Castle, with a head full of Partridge, Strap, Tom Pipes, and Sancho Panza; but I know that my first impressions of them were picked up at that time, and that they were somehow or other connected with a suppurated abscess that some boy had come home with,

in consequence of his Yorkshire 'guide, philosopher, and friend,' having ripped it open with an inky penknife. The impression made upon me, however made, never left me. I was always curious about them—fell, long afterwards, and at sundry times, into the way of hearing more about them—at last, having an audience, resolved to write about them. With that intent I went down into Yorkshire before I began this book, in very severe winter time, which is pretty faithfully described herein. As I wanted to see a schoolmaster or two, and was forewarned that those gentlemen might, in their modesty, be shy of receiving a visit from the author of the 'Pickwick Papers,' I consulted with a professional friend here, who had a Yorkshire connexion, and with whom I conceived a pious fraud. He gave me some letters of introduction, in the name, I think, of my travelling companion; they bore reference to a supposititious little boy who had been left with a widowed mother who didn't know what to do with him; the poor lady had thought, as a means of thawing the tardy compassion of her relations in his behalf, of sending him to a Yorkshire school; I was the poor lady's friend travelling that way; and if the recipient of the letter could inform me of a school in his neighbourhood, the writer would be very much obliged. I went to several places in that part of the country where I understood these schools to be most plentifully sprinkled, and had no occasion to deliver a letter until I came to a certain town which shall be nameless. The person to whom it was addressed was not at home; but he came down at night, through the snow, to the inn where I was staying. It was after dinner; and he needed little persuasion to sit down by the fire in a warm corner, and take his share of the wine that was on the table. I am afraid he is dead now. I recollect he was a jovial, ruddy, broad-faced man; that we got acquainted directly; and that we talked on all kinds of subjects, except the school, which he showed a great anxiety to avoid. 'Was there any large school near?' I asked him, in reference to the letter. 'Oh, yes,' he said; 'there was a pratty big 'un.' 'Was it a good one?' I asked. 'Ey!' he said, 'it was as good as anoother—that was a' matther of opinion;' and fell to looking at the fire, staring round the room, and whistling a little. On my reverting to some other topic that we had been discussing, he recovered immediately; but, though I tried him

again and again, I never approached the question of the school, even if he were in the middle of a laugh, without observing that his countenance fell, and that he became uncomfortable. At last, when we had passed a couple of hours or so very agreeably, he suddenly took up his hat, and leaning over the table and looking me full in the face, said, in a low voice, 'Weel, Misther, we've been vary pleasant togather, and ar'll spak' my moind tiv'ee. Dinnot let the weedur send her lattle boy to yan o' our school-measthers, while there's a harse to hoold in a' Lunnon, or a gootther to lie asleep in. Ar wouldn't mak' ill words amang my neeburs, and ar speak tiv'ee quiet loike. But I'm dom'd if ar can gang to bed and not tellee, for weedur's sak', to keep the lattle boy from a' sike scoondrels while there's a harse to hoold in a' Lunnun, or a gootther to lie asleep in!' Repeating these words with great heartiness, and with a solemnity on his jolly face that made it look twice as large as before, he shook hands and went away. I never saw him afterwards, but I sometimes imagine that I descry a faint recollection of him in John Browdie." "Nicholas Nickleby" was followed by "Oliver Twist," which originally appeared in "Bentley's Miscellany," which Dickens undertook to edit, and which under his hands rose to a very large circulation. The publisher entertaining the opinion usual amongst his class as to the minor share which the author ought to receive in such cases, Dickens subsequently gave up his editorship of a magazine whose chief boast it must ever be that "Boz" was once its conductor. In "Oliver Twist" Dickens gave tokens of other talents than those for the display of humour. He painted scenes of deep pathos, and evinced strong sympathy for the poor, the suffering, and the oppressed, and showed the world a literary champion in the field ready to do battle in the cause of virtue and humanity. His picture of the tyranny of a police magistrate led to the removal of a notorious member of that class from the bench; and since then the pen of "Boz," urged by kindly sympathies, has exposed many a phase of cruelty and wrong, and has excited the desires of good men to lessen the amount of evil and of suffering existing in society. He has been, indeed, the author of many social ameliorations and reforms. Whilst he has amused, he has improved us. After "Nickleby" came "Master Humphrey's Clock," in

which Dickens endeavoured to realise a long-cherished plan of supplying the public with the best writing at the smallest possible price; and the new work was, accordingly, published in weekly numbers of low cost as well as in monthly parts. "Humphrey's Clock" was the general title of a collection of tales joined by a connecting narrative. In the first of these, called "The Old Curiosity Shop," Dickens introduced the character of "Little Nell," perhaps the most beautiful he has ever drawn; and the pathos and simplicity of which has made it a universal favourite. The story of "Barnaby Rudge" was the second of the same work, and contains, among other specimens of remarkable descriptive power, a vivid picture of the Lord George Gordon riots. In the preface to the new and cheap edition of "Barnaby Rudge" the author again lets us have a glimpse of his own life. "The raven (he says) in this story is a compound of two great originals, of whom I have been, at different times, the proud possessor. The first was in the bloom of his youth when he was discovered in a modest retirement in London, by a friend of mine, and given to me. He had from the first, as Sir Hugh Evans says of Anne Page, 'good gifts,' which he improved by study and attention in a most exemplary manner. He slept in a stable — generally on horseback — and so terrified a Newfoundland dog by his preternatural sagacity, that he has been known, by the mere superiority of his genius, to walk off unmolested with the dog's dinner, from before his face. He was rapidly rising in acquirements and virtues, when, in an evil hour, his stable was newly painted. He observed the workmen closely, saw that they were careful of the paint, and immediately burned to possess it. On their going to dinner he ate up all they had left behind, consisting of a pound or two of white lead; and this youthful indiscretion terminated in death. While I was yet inconsolable for his loss, another friend of mine in Yorkshire discovered an older and more gifted raven at a village public-house, which he prevailed upon the landlord to part with for a consideration, and sent up to me. The first act of this sage was to administer to the effects of his predecessor, by disinterring all the cheese and half-pence he had buried in the garden — a work of immense labour and research, to which he devoted all the energies of his mind. When he had *achieved this task*, he applied himself to the acquisition of

stable language, in which he soon became such an adept, that he would perch outside my window and drive imaginary horses with great skill all day. Perhaps even I never saw him at his best, for his former master sent his duty with him, 'and if I wished the bird to come out very strong, would I be so good as to show him a drunken man'—which I never did, having (unfortunately) none but sober people at hand. But I could hardly have respected him more, whatever the stimulating influence of this sight might have been. He had not the least respect, I am sorry to say, for me in return, or for anybody but the cook; to whom he was attached—but only, I fear, as a policeman might have been. Once I met him unexpectedly, about half-a-mile off, walking down the middle of a public street, attended by a pretty large crowd, and spontaneously exhibiting the whole of his accomplishments. His gravity under these trying circumstances I never can forget, nor the extraordinary gallantry with which, refusing to be brought home, he defended himself behind a pump, until overpowered by numbers. It may have been that he was too bright a genius to live long, or it might have been that he took some pernicious substance into his bill, and thence into his maw—which is not improbable, seeing that he new-pointed the greater part of the garden wall by digging out the mortar, broke countless squares of glass by scraping away the putty all around the frames, and tore up and swallowed, in splinters, the greater part of a wooden staircase of six steps and a landing—but after some three years he, too, was taken ill, and died before the kitchen fire. He kept his eyes to the last upon the meat as it roasted, and suddenly turned over on his back with a sepulchral cry of 'Cuckoo!' Since then I have been ravenless." On the completion of "Humphrey's Clock," Dickens set sail for America, where he accumulated materials for his "American Notes for General Circulation," published on his return in 1842. In the course of the year 1843 he commenced his "Martin Chuzzlewit," which appeared, like his earlier works, in monthly parts. In the middle of 1844 he went to Italy, where he spent about a year. In 1845 he proposed to found a new morning newspaper, the "Daily News," of which he was to be the editor. He organised a large literary staff, and surrounded himself with the most popular writers of the day. Money was abundant, the pro-

ject was warmly applauded, and on the 21st of January, 1846, the first number of the new journal appeared. In it Dickens commenced his sketches, entitled "Pictures of Italy." Expectation had been so highly excited, that the first number of the newspaper—though probably full fifty times as good as any first number of a daily newspaper that ever before appeared,—and because in its very first infancy it did not utterly eclipse its rivals that had been organised for half a century,—many people professed to be disappointed. This public disregard for the new journal, and the constant heavy labour of editing a morning newspaper, combined, probably, to induce Dickens to withdraw from so troubled a task. Since then he has delighted the world in his own peculiar fashion with his "Dombey and Son," and "David Copperfield;" has written several Christmas-books; and has established the weekly paper called "Household Words," to which he and other writers have attracted a host of supporters, numbering, it is understood, somewhere about sixty thousand per week. At times, Dickens, excited by the flagrance of some public wrong, launches a letter from the newspapers, which finds its way through the whole kingdom. Here is one of them:—"I was a witness of the execution at Horsemonger Lane this morning. I went there with the intention of observing the crowd gathered to behold it, and I had excellent opportunities of doing so, at intervals, all through the night, and continuously from daybreak until after the spectacle was over. I do not address you on the subject with any intention of discussing the abstract question of capital punishment, or any of the arguments of its opponents or advocates. I simply wish to turn this dreadful experience to some account for the general good, by taking the readiest and most public means of adverting to an intimation given by Sir G. Grey in the last session of Parliament, that the Government might be induced to give its support to a measure making the infliction of capital punishment a private solemnity within the prison walls (with such guarantees for the last sentence of the law being inexorably and surely administered as should be satisfactory to the public at large), and of most earnestly beseeching Sir G. Grey, as a solemn duty which he owes to society, and a responsibility which he *cannot for ever put* away, to originate such a legislative

change himself. I believe that a sight so inconceivably awful as the wickedness and levity of the immense crowd collected at that execution this morning could be imagined by no man, and could be presented in no heathen land under the sun. The horrors of the crime which brought the wretched murderers to it, faded in my mind before the atrocious bearing, looks, and language, of the assembled spectators. When I came upon the scene at midnight, the *shrillness* of the cries and howls that were raised from time to time, denoting that they came from a concourse of boys and girls assembled in the best places, made my blood run cold. As the night went on, screeching, and laughing, and yelling in strong chorus of parodies on negro melodies, with substitutions of 'Mrs. Manning' for 'Susannah,' and the like, were added to these. When the day dawned, thieves, low prostitutes, ruffians, and vagabonds of every kind, flocked on to the ground, with every variety of offensive and foul behaviour. Fightings, faintings, whistlings, imitations of Punch, brutal jokes, tumultuous demonstrations of indecent delight when swooning women were dragged out of the crowd by the police with their dresses disordered, gave a new zest to the general entertainment. When the sun rose brightly—as it did—it gilded thousands upon thousands of upturned faces, so inexpressibly odious in their brutal mirth or callousness, that a man had cause to feel ashamed of the shape he wore, and to shrink from himself, as fashioned in the image of the Devil. When the two miserable creatures who attracted all this ghastly sight about them were turned quivering into the air, there was no more emotion, no more pity, no more thought that two immortal souls had gone to judgment, no more restraint in any of the previous obscenities, than if the name of Christ had never been heard in this world, and there were no belief among men but that they perished like the beasts. I have seen, habitually, some of the worst sources of general contamination and corruption in this country, and I think there are not many phases of London life that could surprise me. I am solemnly convinced that nothing that ingenuity could devise to be done in this City, in the same compass of time, could work such ruin as one public execution, and I stand astounded and appalled by the wickedness it exhibits. I do not believe that any community can prosper where such a scene of

horror and demoralisation as was enacted this morning outside Horsemonger Lane Gaol is presented at the very doors of good citizens, and is passed by, unknown or forgotten. And when, in our prayers and thanksgivings for the season, we are humbly expressing before God our desire to remove the moral evils of the land, I would ask your readers to consider whether it is not a time to think of this one, and to root it out.—I am, Sir, your faithful servant, CHARLES DICKENS. Devonshire Terrace, Tuesday, Nov. 13."—Dickens has, like others in this world, been made to suffer every now and then for his good nature. High up on a list, taken from the pocket of a begging-letter writer, of persons easily induced to give money to those who pleaded distress, was found the name of Charles Dickens, in company with that of an equally kindly, but more wealthy, charitable person, Miss Burdett Coutts. His own account of how he has been victimised by the clever tales of systematic impostors has been told in his own inimitable way in "Household Words." Other experiences of a kindred character have also been his, where patronage and kindness have been repaid by slanderous statements published beyond the reach of English law.

DILKE, CHARLES WENTWORTH, Proprietor, and for many years Editor of "The Athenæum;" born December 8, 1789; began his career in the public service, being a colleague of John Dickens, the father of "Boz," in the Navy Pay Office. Some thirty or thirty-five years since, Mr. Dilke was a contributor to the reviews and magazines then in their palmy days—to the "Westminster Review," and the "Retrospective," when under the editorship of Mr. Southern, our present minister at the Brazils; and he published some works connected with our early drama and literary history. On a consolidation of offices, which occurred some years since, Mr. Dilke took the opportunity of withdrawing from official duties; he did not, however, "retire" into the easy enjoyment of well-earned leisure, but undertook the heavy and too often thankless task of conducting a critical journal, in which the truth, as far as he could find it, should be honestly told. He bought the "Athenæum," which, under its originator, Mr. J. S. Buckingham, and afterwards under John Sterling (son *of "The Thunderer"* of "The Times") had been unsuc-

cessful; and laid himself out deliberately to build it up into a powerful and profitable literary paper. Years of unremitting effort, directed by high purpose and honest motives, secured their reward; and in the hands of Mr. Dilke the "Athenæum" has for years past been the first paper of its kind in the kingdom. In 1846 he intrusted the literary editorship to Mr. T. K. Hervey, in order that he himself might assume the management of the "Daily News." Under his control the price of that daily paper was reduced to 2½*d.*, when it obtained an enormous circulation, but not enough to justify (under the other circumstances of the journal) persistence in so low a price. Since his retirement from the "Daily News," Mr. Dilke appears to have indulged himself with more quiet than his indomitable tendency to hard work ever before permitted him to enjoy. Now and then he may be seen in the Reading Room of the British Museum (of which, by the way, he was one of the very earliest frequenters in the days of Benjamin D'Israeli the elder) poring over some seldom-searched page, printed perhaps by a flying press during the turmoil of the Civil Wars, or, it may be, in the less sanguinary but scarcely exciting day of "Wilkes and '45," when lord mayors and sheriffs bearded Parliaments and Ministers, and the press was struggling to be free. In some number of the "Athenæum" thereafter may be detected, perhaps, a paper evidently written by a man who had gone *con amore* to his task,—had looked at it, turned it about, examined every passage of its history, connexions and relations, had tested it by the standards of logic and of strong common sense, and then wound up pen in hand, by pouring out the whole results in some fluent columns of type deserving a more distinctive existence than that generally attaching to the articles in a weekly journal. "Junius" is one of the texts which Mr. Dilke has investigated, and his papers on the subject present a very remarkable marshalling of evidence upon a vexed and probably never-to-be-settled literary question. Mr. Dilke's son—also Charles Wentworth Dilke,—was one of the earliest promoters of the Great Exhibition of 1851, and acted as a chief member of the Executive Committee.

DISRAELI, BENJAMIN, a Political Leader and Author, was born in London, December 1805, the son of the cele-

brated author of the "Curiosities of Literature." At the age of eighteen he visited Germany, and on returning to England published, while yet a minor, his first work, called "Vivian Grey." In 1826 he visited Italy and Greece, and was in Albania during the civil war. He passed the winter of 1829–30 in Constantinople, and in the spring travelled in Syria, Egypt, and Nubia. Returning to England in 1831, he found the nation in all the excitement of the Reform agitation. Anxious to obtain a seat in parliament, entertaining a Tory-party hatred of the Whigs, then in the ascendant, and not naturally illiberal, Disraeli determined to consult the temper of the times; and accordingly, in becoming a candidate for the borough of Chipping Wycombe, he put forward a strong case against the Whigs, in the form best calculated to secure the suffrages of the Radical party, to whom he had obtained a recommendation from Mr. Joseph Hume, and, in addition, spoke in favour of short parliaments and vote by ballot. He lost the election in two contests,—the Radicals apparently distrusting their candidate. In 1833 he published the novel "Contarini Fleming," which he called a psychological romance; and in the following year, a "Vindication of the British Constitution." In 1835, when the Conservative party had been restored to office, Disraeli became a candidate for the borough of Taunton. The danger of the country coming under the sway of a Whig oligarchy had now, he said, passed away; accordingly, he renounced vote by ballot and short parliaments as unnecessary, and declared himself a supporter of Sir Robert Peel. This change brought down upon him the attacks of the opposite party, and he was denounced throughout the kingdom as a political renegade. In the course of one of his speeches at Taunton he made an uncomplimentary reference to Daniel O'Connell, then in the zenith of his fame. The agitator, a few days after, returned his invective with interest, and declared, alluding to Mr. Disraeli's Hebrew origin, that "he made no doubt that, if his genealogy could be traced, he would be found to be the true heir-at-law of the impenitent thief on the cross." The reply to this outrage was a challenge, not to the speaker, who was known uniformly to decline duelling, but to his son. No duel, however, took place; but the correspondence was published in the newspapers. A published letter, written to *O'Connell by Disraeli*, concluded by the magniloquent boast,

"We shall meet at Philippi." This prophecy was fulfilled, in 1837, by the return of Disraeli for the borough of Maidstone. He sought an early opportunity of addressing the House; but having neglected to study the tastes of his new audience as to the temper and style of oratory, his first attempt was one of the most egregious failures on record, and he sat down amid the derisive cheers of the members, consoling himself by exclaiming, "The time will come when you will hear me!"—a prediction which has proved truer than the greater number uttered under such discouragements. At the general election of 1841 he was returned for Shrewsbury, and in the course of the session spoke several times with a self-possession and business-like aim which showed that he had profited by his first unpleasant lesson, and won him the ear of the House. During the year 1843 he supported Peel; but in 1844, perceiving the growing developement of that policy of the great minister which ended in free-trade, Disraeli receded from his side to become a leader of the Protectionist party, and commenced upon his former chief a series of personal attacks, which, for elaboration, point, and length of duration, have no parallel in the annals of the House of Commons. Various reasons were assigned for the personal aim of Disraeli's opposition; but it was on all hands agreed that the orator had successfully studied the character which he assailed. For three sessions the House listened with surprise and alarmed attention to speeches delivered at intervals, in which the solemn mysteriousness, the pompous commonplace, the high disdain, and, lastly, the imputed treachery of the minister, were alternately mocked or denounced with indignation. The retreat of Peel removed the occasion of these well-prepared displays, and the triumph of free trade left Disraeli the champion of a hopeless cause. As the advocate of protection, Disraeli did all that could be demanded of a party leader, and having, to borrow an expression from one of his recent addresses, "hacked on the fight until his sword was notched from point to hilt," he has intimated his intention not to be the advocate of exclusive privilege. It has hitherto been Mr. Disraeli's lot to excite expectations by his talents which have ended in disappointment. At the present moment, he has no higher reputation in the House than that of a clever debater; while many men of less natural ability have acquired authority by their

steadier application. He has, however, youth on his side; and, emancipated from the association of a narrow-minded party, may yet do the State good service, in following his naturally liberal inclinations. As a speaker, he rarely enunciates a new principle, but is constantly startling his audience by setting old ones in unexpected lights and combinations. His oratory is unimpassioned, and his manner even ungainly; but the felicity of his language, the aptitude and wide range of his illustrations, and a certain ingenuity and adaptation which run through all his speeches, always secure for him the pleased attention of his audience. Besides the novelty already mentioned, Mr. Disraeli has written three works, "Coningsby," "the Sibyl," and "Tancred," full of graphic sketches of character; but chiefly remarkable as the vehicle of the writer's political and social views.

DUCHATEL, M., ex-Minister of France under Louis Philippe, was born in 1805, the son of an humble *employé* of the Enregistrement of Domains, at Bordeaux. During the Revolution and the Empire, the father advanced step by step in the administrative career, till he arrived at the Director-Generalship of Domains, and received the titles of Count and Councillor of State. The late minister being an advocate without causes, he sought to make himself a position as a man of letters, and became one of the editors and proprietors of the "Globe," about the year 1827. After the Revolution of 1830 he was named Councillor of State, and in 1832 elected deputy. In 1833 he was appointed Secretary-General of the Minister of Finance. In 1834 he became Minister of Commerce. In 1836 he brought forward the question of the Spanish funds, and introduced some reforms into the French administrative system. For the last seven years of the monarchy of 1830 he was Minister of the Interior. In the Chamber, he was very popular with the members of the centre; and having a good house, a good cook, and being a safe and discreet man, and *tant soit peu gourmand*, he was influential, and in a sense popular. Duchâtel possesses some of the qualities and some of the defects of Guizot. He is not so erudite or learned, and possesses not his powers of speech and exposition; but, on the other *hand*, he has more practical and administrative know-*ledge.*

DUFAURE, M., an ex-Minister of France, was born in 1789. He was educated for the bar, and long practised at Bordeaux. Under the Guizot ministry he became a Councillor of State, and afterwards Minister of Public Works. On the rejection of the law of dotation he left the cabinet, and was one of the liberal opposition. After the revolution of February he was elected for the Charente Inférieure, and became, under Louis Napoleon, a constitutional minister. When the President resolved to usurp the whole power of the state, Dufaure was one of the representatives who escaped seizure and imprisonment. M. Dufaure having always supported the cause of law and order, could do nothing but oppose the *coup d'état*, against which he protested with M. de Tocqueville and all the statesmen of France.

DUMAS, ALEXANDRE, French Novelist, born about 1800. This writer, who is a Creole, is one of the most fertile, the most popular, and the most curiously vain in all France. He has an intense love for notoriety, and seeks it on all possible occasions. To give a mere list of the novels he has written would fill some pages, but as they have all been produced with reference rather to the profits to be derived from their issue piecemeal in the French journals, as *feuilletons*, than to their perfection as works of fiction, or their influence on manners or morals, such a list would not be worth the space it must fill. Perhaps the book by which he is most known, out of France, is "Monte Christo." A recent writer has, with much truth, thus spoken of Alexandre Dumas:—"He is a fine specimen of the Negro blood, and exhibits, in an almost equal degree, the qualities of the indefatigable slave and the brilliant Frenchman. With an insatiable lust for notoriety, he contrives that his sayings and doings shall occupy the gossips of France. Not only as a writer—not simply as *le roi du feuilleton*, the *facile princeps* of the circulating library, but also a *gentilhomme*, as a *grand seigneur*, and as a man, must he always astonish the public. If not noble himself, he at least assumes a noble name, Marquis Davy de la Pailleterie; and talks with easy familiarity of his friends, the Princes. If not an accomplished duellist, he is, at least, very great on the theory of duelling. His pen is the inheritance which enables him to give banquets rivalling in splendour the Oriental lavishness of his

own Monte Christo. He has not 'smelt powder,' but to see him on a grand review-day, at the head of a company of national guards, you would fancy him the very Cesar, Alexander, Attila, Napoleon, and Wellington of private life:—his breast is a blaze of orders. The objects of his existence seem to be two:—firstly, to make enormous sums of money to spend with princely prodigality; secondly, incessantly to astonish the world. Above all things, he courts notoriety, scandal, and the power to set men wondering. He began life as a daring innovator and romanticist. Racine, and the whole of the traditional style of French art, he attempted to replace by effective melodramas, which he audaciously asserted were modelled after Shakspeare; his audacity was crowned with a loud but fugitive success. Since then his restless activity has exhibited itself in many ways, and of late the author has almost been eclipsed by the *éclat* attached to the man. A celebrated trial enabled him to gratify his craving for notoriety in a very striking manner. One of these was that strange revelation of corruption—the trial of Beauvallon for killing Dujarrier in a duel—a trial which, while its details scandalised all Europe, and showed them that the fearful pictures of French life painted by Balzac in his 'Grande Homme de Province à Paris,' were not exaggerations, also enabled Dumas, who was called as a witness, to display his science in the duellist's code, his delicate sense of *gentilhommerie*, and his unquellable love of display. There was a buffoonery about his manner during this very serious trial of one man for the murder of another, which called forth general indignation. Aping the orators of the Chamber of Deputies, he said once or twice, 'M. le Président, je demande la parole;" and with a beautiful touch of French bombast, affecting modesty, when asked his profession, he said, 'Monsieur, je dirais auteur dramatique, si je n'étais dans la patrie de Corneille.' Whereupon the president, a man of true French wit, replied, 'Oui, monsieur, il y a des dégrés.'"

DUMAS, JEAN BAPTISTE, the first Practical Chemist of France, late Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Professor of Chemistry at the Sorbonne, in the School of Medicine, Member of the Institute, was born at Alais, July 1800. *When fourteen*, Dumas went to Geneva, to study chemistry,

botany, and medicine, and his first publication was an essay in connexion with De Candolle, then a professor in the Swiss city. The attention of scientific men was soon attracted to him by his researches in animal physiology, in which he was associated with M. Prevost. In 1821 he was appointed teacher of chemistry in the Ecole Polytechnique, Paris. In 1821, Dumas published a memoir on the relations existing between the specific weights of solid bodies and their atomic weight; and from that time to the present has been constantly adding to our stock of knowledge on the subjects of gaseous substances, organic salts, the atomic constitution of the different kinds of ether, the nature of heavy oil of wine, the sulphate of oxide of ethyle, oxalic acid, the compounds of the chemical properties of chloroform, sodoform, and bromoform, stearoptène; the oil of rosemary and valerian, upon organic compounds. Dumas' theory of substitution is one of the most important works of this chemist, and his treatise on chemistry, as applied to the arts, is another valuable offering to practical science. His "Leçons sur la Philosophie Chimique" are popular. As a lecturer, Dumas is one of the most distinguished in Paris. In May 1849, Dumas was elected to the National Assembly; and the President of the Republic called him, on the 31st of October, to join the administration, and intrusted him with the post of Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, where his chemical knowledge enabled him to render public service. He originated annual meetings bearing on agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. Dumas was Chairman of the Jury, Class 2, in the Great Exhibition of 1851, in London.

DUPIN, ANDRE MARIE JEAN JACQUES, the champion of the middle classes in France, and at present President of the National Assembly, was born at Varzy, in 1783. He was educated by his father in the institute as well as the rudiments of law. He was, with M. Berryer, the defender of Marshal Ney, in 1815; and, as the steadfast enemy of the Jesuits, enjoyed a large popularity under the Restoration. He was elected, in May 1815, as a member of the Representative Chamber by the Electoral College of Nièvre, and opposed the arbitrary government of the various cabinets until 1830. In the crisis which then occurred his conduct was courageous. In the new Parliament he became President

and Speaker, and exhibited great tact in directing the debates to a practical conclusion. He is the impersonation of the French *bourgeoisie*, and the first juris-consult at the bar. In the chair of the Parliament elected by universal suffrage he governs with a strong hand, and is, as might be expected, a favourite with the Mountain.

DUPONT (DE L'EURE), Ex-President of the Council in France, is now in his 83d year, and though there have been many abler and more successful men, still we doubt if there be a sincerer, a more straightforward and an honester deputy in all France. In the year 1808 he was a member of the Council of Five Hundred; in 1811, he was President of the Court of Rouen; in 1813 he was President of the *Corps Législatif;* in 1815 he proposed the famous Declaration, in which the rights of citizens were reserved; and in 1830 he was appointed Minister of Justice. His appointment derived its significancy from being a personal protest against Marshal Bugeaud. He is, moreover, highly esteemed by the French people. At the elections of 1842, M. Dupont, indignant at seeing the deputies of the Eure servilely voting in favour of the execrated Guizot ministry, contested four colleges of that department simultaneously; he was elected in all four, and chose Evreux. M. Dupont invariably voted against the corrupt and dishonest administration which fell with the late king.

E.

EASTLAKE, SIR CHARLES LOCK, painter, born 1793, appointed President of the Royal Academy in 1850, on the death of Sir Martin Archer Shee. To great talents in his profession Eastlake unites a considerable knowledge of the literature of art; an acquisition which secured him in 1841 the Secretaryship of the Fine Arts' Commission, appointed in that year.

EDWARDES, MAJOR HERBERT BENJAMIN, a *young* officer of the Bengal army, who rendered most essen*tial service in the* late military operations in the Punjaub,

is a native of Frodeslay, in Salop, where he was baptised on the 17th of January, 1820. His father, the Rev. B. Edwardes, brother to Sir Henry Edwardes, of Ryton Grove, Shrewsbury, was at that period, and for many years, rector of Frodesley, at an income of 370*l.* per annum. After receiving a preparatory education in his native village, Herbert was sent to King's College, London. He was one of those cadets, therefore, who had not the advantage afforded him of an education in the Hon. East India Company's establishment at Addiscombe. Through the instrumentality of his uncle, Sir Henry Edwardes, the young man was nominated to a cadetship, by Sir Richard Jenkins, G.C.B., late M.P. for Shrewsbury, many years on the civil department in India. He was passed and sworn on the 26th of August, 1840; arrived in Calcutta about the end of January following, and was immediately appointed to the 1st European Regiment. Having passed the usual examination in the Hindoostanee language, he was, in November 1845, appointed aide-de-camp to Sir Hugh Gough, commander-in-chief; and was present in the battle of Moodkee on the 18th of December, where he received a wound, for which a pension of 3*s.* a-day was awarded to him. In February 1846, Mr. Edwardes was declared fully qualified as an interpreter, and having resumed his duties as aide-de-camp to Lord Gough, was in the thickest of the fire at Sobraon. In April 1846, he was appointed third assistant to the Commissioners of the Trans-Sutlej territory; and, in January 1847, first assistant to the resident at Lahore. It was not, however, till April 1848, that he commenced those independent operations which have attracted the attention of his countrymen, and won for him the marked favour of his sovereign. Messrs. Agnew and Anderson were assassinated at Mooltan on the 18th April. Lieutenant Edwardes was then at Derah Futteh Khan, on the Indus, with one regiment of the Lahore troops, and three hundred horse. His first movement was for the rescue of the British envoys; but on hearing they were murdered, he resolved upon raising levies from the border tribes of the Sooleiman mountains, and occupying as much of the rebel provinces as possible, and to collect the revenues and pay his troops from the enemy's resources. Volunteers flocking to his standard in large numbers, he determined to endeavour to shut up *Moolraj* in his fortress, and keep him there

till a British force arrived. The Nawab of Bhawulpore, who tendered his aid, was requested to cross the Sutlej and threaten Mooltan from the east, while Edwardes advanced with his levies from the west. Thus was covered and occupied a territory producing an annual revenue of eight lacs of rupees. On the 20th of May Colonel Cortlandt, an officer in the Sikh service, came up with the Sikh garrison of Dera Ismail Khan, about 4000 men and some guns; and the Bhawulpore troops having been attacked by the rebel Moolraj, on the 18th of June at Keneyree, Edwardes hastened to his assistance, with his raw levies, being the only European amongst them. He might, however, have fared ill had he not been efficiently aided by a portion of Cortlandt's force, with some guns. The victory was complete; and undoubtedly much is due to the exertions of Lieutenant Edwardes, who observed in a letter to a friend, that "No Englishman could be beaten on the 18th of June!" The British force (British only in its leaders) then advanced upon Moultan, driving the Dewan before them. On the 1st of July, however, another battle took place at Sadoosam, when the enemy was again defeated, and lost four guns. From this date till the 18th of August Edwardes remained before Moultan, keeping Moolraj a prisoner. The troops under General Whish then arrived; and afterwards Lieutenant Edwardes, of course, took only a subordinate part in the subsequent operations. On the restoration of peace he came to England, married, spent a few months in Wales, and returned to India. Major Edwardes lost his right hand by an accident, but the privation not having occurred in action, no compensation could be awarded him consistent with the usages of the service. The Company has, however, voted him an annuity of 100*l.*, and the Court of Directors commemorated his services by striking a medal in gold.

ELLESMERE, FRANCIS EGERTON, Earl of, an author and liberal patron of the arts, born 1800, is the second son of the first and late Duke of Sutherland, and thus a brother of the present head of that house. He entered Parliament in 1820 as Lord Francis Leveson Gower, and was throughout his career a liberal Conservative of the Canning school, a cautious reformer of abuses, but opposed to organic *change. He spoke* well on behalf of Free-trade twenty years

before Peel embraced that policy, carried in the House a motion for the endowment of the Catholic clergy in Ireland, and warmly supported the project of the London University. He was Secretary for Ireland under Lord Anglesey and the Duke of Northumberland, and Secretary at War under the Duke of Wellington. His lordship has published a spirited and truthful English version of Goëthe's "Faust," and also translations of Schiller's and Körner's "Poems." In 1840, accompanied by his lady, he left England in his own yacht, on a voyage to the Levant. They touched at various points on the shores of the Mediterranean, and pitched their tents wherever attracted by the picturesque; and on the completion of the voyage his lordship published an exceedingly pleasant and tasteful volume called "Mediterranean Sketches." Lord Ellesmere is a liberal patron of the fine arts, and as heir to the magnificent picture gallery of the great Duke of Bridgewater, valued at £150,000, has set a brilliant example to the possessors of similar collections in the erection of a noble gallery at his mansion, to which the public are freely welcomed. It is said that to his lordship's discernment and liberality, always exercised with delicacy, more than one name now distinguished in letters has owed assistance during the early struggles of authorship. When associating with men of letters, as he loves to do, he chooses to do so as an author rather than an Earl.

EMERSON, RALPH WALDO, an eminent American metaphysician, is the son of a Unitarian clergyman of Boston, and graduated at Harvard University in 1821, being then about seventeen. Having turned his attention to theology, he was ordained minister of one of the congregations of his native city; but embracing, soon after, some peculiar views in regard to forms of worship, he abandoned his profession, and, retiring to the quiet village of Concord, after the manner of an Arabian prophet, gave himself up to thinking, preparatory to his appearance as a "seer," the character in which his American friends delight to recognise him. He delivered an oration called "Man-thinking," before the Phi-Beta-Kappa Society, in 1837; and an address to the senior class of the Divinity College, Cambridge, in the following year. He did not pretend to reason, but to discover; he announced, not argued. *Mr. Emerson* sinks "Deity and nature in man." In

1838, Mr. Emerson published "Literary Ethics, an Oration;" and in the following year, "Nature, an Oration." In 1840, he commenced the "Dial," a magazine of literature, philosophy, and history, which was continued four years. In 1841, he published "The Method of Nature, and Man the Reformer;" three lectures on the times; and the first series of his Essays. In 1844, he gave to the public "Lectures on New England Reformers," and the second series of his "Essays." In 1846, he published a volume of poems. In 1849, he visited England, and delivered the lectures which now form the volume called "Representative Men."

ESPARTERO, GENERAL, an ex-Regent of Spain, is the son of a carpenter in humble circumstances, who, in consideration for the sickly habit of his son, sought to procure for him the ease of a Spanish priest. When the French invaded Spain Espartero exchanged his gown for a uniform. He manifested great military capacity, and, obtaining the patronage of an influential family, was placed at a military school, where he remained until his twenty-third year, when he entered upon active service as sub-lieutenant. Upon the expulsion of Napoleon from Spain, his restless spirit led him to join Morillo in the South American colonies. He returned to Spain, after much fighting and gambling, possessor of £8000, married a wealthy lady, and in 1833, when Ferdinand died, took a decided part in favour of Donna Maria against Don Carlos her uncle. He took the field against Zumallacaregui, and sustained many defeats, but the tide of victory at length turned, and in the end Espartero became regent of Spain. For the next six years he governed the country with a fair share of success, although continually thwarted by intrigue. In July 1843, he found it necessary to take strong measures against a party which sought to restore the influence of Queen Christina, and even bombarded Seville. Narvaez entered Madrid, and Espartero was attacked by General Concha, at Seville; he was compelled to retire to the coast, and embarking at Puerto San Real sought the protection of a British man-of-war, and sailed for Lisbon, and thence to England. For some time he resided in London, but has since been invited to return *to Spain, where* he resides as a private citizen.

EVERETT, EDWARD, an American Orator, Scholar, and Diplomatist, was born in Dorchester, Massachussets, in April 1794. His father was an eminent clergyman at Boston, and his elder brother served his country as minister at the court of Spain. He received his early education at Boston, and attended there a school kept by Ezekiel, brother of the celebrated Daniel Webster. He entered Harvard College when little more than thirteen years old, and left it with first honours four years later, undecided as to his future profession. At length he resolved to study divinity, and did so at Cambridge, filling, at the same time, the office of Latin tutor. Before he was twenty, he was chosen pastor of the Brottle Street Church in Boston—an arduous post, his labours in which, beyond his years and strength, impaired his health. His discourses delivered here earned him, at that early age, the reputation of hearty, earnest eloquence, and gave birth to the expectations with which, in after years, his efforts as a public speaker on other subjects were awaited. In 1814 he was invited to accept the new professorship of Greek literature at Cambridge, with permission to visit Europe. He accepted the office in 1815; and, before entering on its duties, embarked at Boston for Liverpool. He stayed in London during the excitement of the battle of Waterloo, and afterwards proceeded, by way of Holland, to the famous University of Göttingen, where he remained to study the German language, and acquaint himself with the state of learning and the modes of instruction of that country. Having completed his residence in Göttingen, and made excursions to Prussia, Saxony, and Holland, he repaired to Paris, and passed the winter of 1817–18 there. In the next spring he again visited London, passed a few weeks at Cambridge and Oxford, and made the tour of Wales, the Lake Country, and Scotland. While in England, he acquired the friendship of some of the most eminent men of the day; among others, of Scott, Byron, Jeffrey, Campbell, Mackintosh, Romilly, and Davy. In the autumn of 1818 he commenced another extensive tour in continental Europe, travelled through the south of France, Switzerland, and the north of Italy, and divided the winter between Florence, Rome, and Naples. Towards the end of 1819 he passed into Greece, thence to Constantinople, and returned to the west *of Europe* by Wallachia, Hungary, and Austria

Mr. Everett went back to America in 1819, and entered at once upon the duties of his professorship. Soon after his return he was invited to become the editor of the "North American Review," a journal which had been established for some time; but which, though supported by writers of great ability, had acquired only a limited circulation. Under the auspices of its new editor the demand increased so rapidly, that a second and sometimes a third edition of its number was required. This was the first instance in which a critical journal succeeded in firmly establishing itself in the United States. One of his first cares was to vindicate American principles and institutions against a crowd of British travellers and authors who were endeavouring, by flippant writing, to bring them into contempt. The spirit and dignity with which he performed his task checked this pernicious system of assault; and Campbell, who had inadvertently admitted into the "New Monthly" a paper of the same description, made a handsome *amende*. Besides conducting the "North American," and discharging the duties of his professorship, Everett popularised a portion of his university lectures for the purpose of delivering them to large general audiences in the city, the first attempt of the kind which had hitherto been made. In 1824, Mr. Everett delivered the annual oration before the Phi-Beta-Kappa Society at Cambridge. The occasion was signalised by the presence of Lafayette. The entire discourse was favourably received; but the peroration—being an apostrophe to Lafayette—touched a chord of sympathy in an immense audience, already excited by the unusual circumstances of the oration. This was the first of a series of orations and addresses delivered by Everett on public occasions of almost every kind during a quarter of a century. They probably constitute that portion of his literary efforts by which he is best known to the world, and have contributed, in their published form, to elevate the standard of productions of this class. Up to 1824 he had taken no active interest in politics, but now his articles in the Review had demonstrated his acquaintance with the wants and spirit of the nation, and his recent oration had just brought him prominently before the public. The constituency of Middlesex, without any *solicitation* on his part, returned him to Congress by a great *majority over the* mere party and political candidate. For

ten years he sat in the national parliament, and proved himself a working member, never taking advantage of his superior powers to detain the house with oratorical display. He took part in every debate of importance. His speeches were short, plain, and business-like. He opposed General Jackson's Indian policy, that of removing the Indians without their consent, and advocated free-trade principles. In 1835 he retired from Congress, and was next year chosen Governor of Massachussets. In 1839 he was again a candidate for the same honour, but was defeated on local questions by a majority of one out of a constituency of 100,000. In 1841 he was selected by President General Harrison to represent the United States at the Court of St. James, a position for which he was peculiarly qualified by acquaintance with European tongues, his familiarity with the civil law, and his experience in connexion with the then mooted Boundary question, which he had acquired as Governor of Massachussets. Although the secretaryship of state at Washington was held by four different statesmen, of various politics, during Everett's mission, he engaged the confidence and approbation of all. His firmness, high intelligence, and assiduous habits, won him great respect in this country; and his scholarship was recognised in the bestowal of the degree of D.C.L. by the University of Oxford during his visit to that city. He returned to America in 1845, and now lives in retirement at Cambridge, writing his promised "Treatise on the Law of Nations."

EXCELMANS, MARSHAL, a French Soldier of the Empire and of the *coup d'état* of December 2d. Excelmans entered the army under Napoleon. A brilliant career as a cavalry officer advanced him to be grand écuyer to Murat, king of Naples, and he was made by Napoleon, General of Division, a Count of the Empire, and Grand Officier de la Légion d'Honneur. While Murat, his master and benefactor, was on the way to his principality, Excelmans managed to make his submission agreeable to the Bourbons, and even to be received by the king as Chevalier of the order of St. Louis. Unfortunately for him, a secret correspondence with Murat being intercepted, he was seized and accused, in January 1815, by the military law-officers of the king, of whom he had been an adulator, as a traitor and a spy,

disobedient to military orders, writing things offensive to the king and the government, and as a violator of the oath he had taken as a member of the order of St. Louis. He got through the ordeal, and threw himself at the feet of the king, to whom he again swore an attachment and a devotion inviolable and eternal. Two months had not passed when he joined the half-pay officers at St. Denis, and accompanied them to the Emperor, on his return from Elba. To him he swore the same inviolable fidelity. He took, soon after, the command of a corps of cavalry, and witnessed the catastrophe of Waterloo. Louis XVIII. received very soon the General's renewed assurance of submission and devotedness; but this time he was exiled. He remained, after his return to France, unemployed till 1826, when he was again called to active service, under the special protection of the Duchess d'Angoulême, who, with her husband, showed him and his family much favour and kindness. With them he was closely connected, when the Revolution of 1830 put an end to that dynasty. No sooner had victory declared for the men of the barricades than he offered his sword to the new king, and was not only well received, but honourably rewarded. Having entered the service under the Republic in 1798, he could not very well oppose the new Republic in 1848, and so he did nothing to prevent the overthrow of his friends the Orleanists; but he soon favoured the reaction, and supported the majority in the Chamber. On its destruction by a perjured conspirator he rallied at once to his standard, and now gives him all the support which he can derive from military experience and habitual perfidy. He is a Member of the Council, and since the 2d of December presided at a military dinner, which called together many of the officers whose hands were still stained with the blood of unoffending citizens.

F.

FARADAY, MICHAEL, England's most eminent Chemist, was born 1794, the son of a poor blacksmith. He was *early* apprenticed to one Ribeau, a bookbinder, in Blandford *Street, and worked* at the craft until he was twenty-two years

of age. Whilst an apprentice, his master called the attention of one of his customers (Mr. Dance, of Manchester Street) to an electrical machine and other things which the young man had made; and Mr. Dance, who was one of the old members of the Royal Institution, took him to hear the four last lectures which Sir Humphry Davy gave them as professor. Faraday attended, and seating himself in the gallery, took notes of the lectures, and at a future time sent his manuscript to Davy, with a short and modest account of himself, and a request, if it were possible, for scientific employment in the labours of the laboratory. Davy, struck with the clearness and accuracy of the memoranda, and confiding in the talents and perseverance of the writer, offered him, upon the occurrence of a vacancy in the laboratory in the beginning of 1813, the post of assistant, which he accepted. At the end of the year he accompanied Davy and his lady over the Continent as secretary and assistant, and in 1815 returned to his duties in the laboratory, and ultimately became Fullerian Professor. Mr. Faraday's researches and discoveries have raised him to the highest rank among European philosophers, while his high faculty of expounding to a general audience the result of recondite investigations makes him one of the most attractive lecturers of the age. He has selected the most difficult and perplexing departments of physical science, the investigation of the reciprocal relations of heat, light, magnetism, and electricity; and by many years of patient and profound study has contributed greatly to simplify our ideas on these subjects. It is the hope of this philosopher that should life and health be spared he will be able to show that the imponderable agencies just mentioned are so many manifestations of one and the same force. Mr. Faraday's great achievements are recognised by the learned societies of every country in Europe, and the University of Oxford in 1832 did itself the honour of enrolling him among her Doctors of Laws. In private life he is beloved for the simplicity and truthfulness of his character, and the kindliness of his disposition.

FAUCHER, LEON, an ex-Minister of France, one of the new members whom the Republic has brought into prominence, has passed the greater portion of his life as a jour-

nalist. From 1830, he was connected with several Paris papers, devoting his talents to the elucidation of the statistics and economy of his country. From 1836 to 1843, he was a contributor to the "Courrier Francais," and is a leading writer in the "Revue de Deux Mondes." He sat for ten years in the old Chamber, for the department of the Marne, for which he was again elected under the new state of things in 1848. As an active member of Louis Napoleon's cabinet, he has distinguished himself for a preference of strong repressive measures in dealing with the ultra party, and has the honour of originating almost every proclamation of martial law which has been made in the provinces of France since the advent of the President.

FILLMORE, MILLARD, President of the United States of America, was born in Cayuga, New York, Jan. 7, 1800, the son of Nathaniel Fillmore, who still cultivates by his own toil a farm in Erie county. He had during his youth no facilities for intellectual progress beyond the imperfectly taught schools of the county, and at the age of fifteen was sent to the wilderness of Langstone county, to learn the clothiers' trade. He was soon after apprenticed to a wool-comber in the town where his father lived. Some public-spirited man had founded a library in the village, and thither the clothier's apprentice spent his evenings, acquiring that information which had been denied to his earlier youth. In his nineteenth year he became known to Judge Walter Wood, who at once detected in him the genius of progress and control. He advised him to study law, and not stopping at words, bought his time, admitted him to his office, and furnished him with the means of going to the bar. For two years Fillmore applied himself to study with enthusiasm and success. With a spirit of self-reliance, worthy the future governor of a free state, he taught school during a portion of each year, to lighten the burdens of his patron. In 1821 he went to Buffalo, where he continued his studies, still teaching as a means of subsistence, till 1823, when he was admitted an attorney in the supreme court of the State. In 1831 he established himself in that city, and soon rose to eminence. In 1828 he went into the State legislature, and became the chief instrument in abolishing the law and practice of imprisonment for debt. In 1832 he

was elected to Congress, where, with his party again in the minority, he ran the same career as in the legislature of the State. In 1836 he was again sent to Congress, and re-elected in 1841. As chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means he became the leader of the Administration in the House. After the exhausting labours of a stormy session he declined re-election. His nomination was pressed with the most earnest solicitations, but private affairs demanded their refusal. Five years of uninterrupted labour at the bar now gave him competence, and established his reputation. In 1848 he was again elected, and received the office of Comptroller. At the last federal election he accepted the nomination of Vice-President, and came out of the contest successful. Finally when, July 9, 1850, by a mysterious dispensation President Taylor was removed from this life, the responsibilities of the highest position in the State devolved upon Millard Fillmore, whose tenure of office expires according to law in March 1853.

FLOCON, FERDINAND, one of the members of the Provisional Government of France, is the son of the director of the State telegraphs. He was born in 1803, and in 1820 became a reporter on the "Courrier Francais," of which he was afterwards one of the writers. He fought at the barricades in the revolution of 1830, and in the dissensions which terminated in the settlement of the crown on Louis Philippe maintained republican principles. Leaving the "Courrier" he attached himself to the "Tribune," and afterwards to the "National," which he quitted to become, with Ledru Rollin, one of the founders of the "Réforme." On the outbreak of the revolution he associated himself with Louis Blanc, Marrast, and Albert, installed himself at the Hôtel de Ville, and of his own authority proclaimed himself member of the new government. Since the advent of M. Bonaparte he has returned to the position of a representative of the people.

FOLEY, JOHN HENRY, Sculptor, was born in Dublin. At the age of thirteen he commenced drawing and modelling in the schools of the Royal Dublin Society, and gained prizes for his studies of the human form, ornamental designs, and architecture. In 1834 he came to London to study sculpture

as a profession, and in the next year became a student of the Royal Academy. In 1839 he produced his "Death of Abel," and the model of "Innocence," which has since been executed in marble. In 1840 he exhibited his "Ino and the Infant Bacchus." "The Houseless Wanderer" was produced in 1842; and, two years later, he became one of the competitors at Westminster Hall for the selection of sculptures to decorate the New Houses of Parliament, when he exhibited "The Youth at a Stream." This one gained for him the commission to execute a statue of John Hampden, which is destined to adorn the approach to the House of Lords.

FONBLANQUE, ALBANY, a Journalist, for many years proprietor and editor of the "Examiner" newspaper, was born about 1800. He was originally designated to the profession of the law, and was for some time a pupil of Chitty, the eminent special pleader. Having, however, displayed great taste and ability as a political writer, it soon became evident that Nature meant him for a journalist; and in that character he quickly obtained a wide reputation. A number of his "leaders," collected and strung together, form the interesting "History of England under Seven Administrations," which he has published with his name. A few years since, the Liberal ministers enlisted him in the public service, by appointing him to a post in the statistical department of the Board of Trade, which he still holds. Upon assuming these new duties, he gave the active editorship of the "Examiner" into the hands of Mr. John Forster.

FORSTER, JOHN, Author and Journalist, Editor of the "Examiner" newspaper, was born at Newcastle in 1812. Mr. Forster's first important work was "Statesmen of the Commonwealth," published in Lardner's "Cyclopædia;" his last, a picturesque "Life of Oliver Goldsmith," recently issued. Between the dates of these two publications Mr. Forster has led a life of constant literary occupation. He has for eighteen years written in the "Examiner," of which paper he has for the last five years been sole editor; and during his long service to journalism he has contributed not inconsiderably to the "Edinburgh Review," the "Foreign *Quarterly* Review" (of which some time ago he was editor *for four years*), and other publications. When Charles

Dickens left the "Daily News," Mr. Forster was for awhile the editor of that paper, and for years past has been the upholder of the "Examiner," in which, it is understood, Mr. Fonblanque—still one of the proprietors—now only occasionally writes.

FORTOUL, HIPPOLITE, appointed French Minister of Marine in November 1850. He is a partisan of Louis Napoleon, and a member of the Assembly, where he represents the department of the Basses-Alpes. M. Fortoul began life as a literary man, with radical political principles, and distinguished himself by contributions to the "Revue de Paris," "L'Artiste," and "The National." During the latter years of the reign of Louis Philippe, M. Fortoul obtained the Professorship of Literature at Aix, since which period his politics have veered round. His name has been frequently mentioned in the latter ministerial crisis. M. Fortoul was formerly a Saint Simonian. He is a fluent speaker.

FOX, W. J., a Politician and Lecturer, was born at Ugglesshall Farm, near Wrentham, Suffolk, in 1786, the son of a small farmer. His father becoming afterwards a weaver at Norwich, young Fox was removed thither, and in youth giving promise of the talents which now distinguish him, he was dedicated to the Christian ministry among the Congregational Nonconformists. With this view he was sent to Homerton College, then under the direction of Dr. Pye Smith; but ultimately embracing tenets allied to Socinianism, he became a preacher of the Unitarian body, and has for many years preached at the chapel of that denomination in South Finsbury. Mr. Fox has taken an active part in the politics of the day, employing both his pen and voice in supporting the extreme Liberal party. During the anti-Corn-law agitation he was a frequent and able speaker at the meetings of the League, and wrote the "Letters of a Norwich Weaver Boy," which appeared in its newspapers. He has also published "Letters to the Working Classes," and a philosophical work on the "Religious Ideas." Mr. Fox sits in Parliament as representative for the borough of Oldham. He is also one of the chief writers for the "Weekly Dispatch" newspaper.

FREMONT, JOHN CHARLES, the "Pathfinder of the Rocky Mountains," a man who has opened to America the gates of her Pacific empire, was born in South Carolina, January 1813. His father was an emigrant gentleman from France, and his mother a lady of Virginia. He received a good education, though left an orphan at four years of age; and when at the age of seventeen he graduated at Charleston College, he still contributed to the support of his mother and her children. From teaching mathematics he turned his attention to civil engineering, in which he made so great proficiency that he was recommended to the Government for employment in the Mississippi survey. He was afterwards employed at Washington in constructing maps of that region. Having received the commission of a lieutenant of engineers, he proposed to the Secretary of War to penetrate the Rocky Mountains. His plan was approved, and in 1842, with a handful of men, he reached and explored the South Pass. He not only fixed the locality of that great Pass through which myriads now press their way to California, but he defined the astronomy, geography, botany, geology, and meteorology of the country, and described the route since followed, and the points from which the flag of the Union is now flying from a chain of wilderness fortresses. His report was printed by the Senate, translated into foreign languages, and Fremont was looked on as one of the benefactors of his country. Impatient of other and broader fields, he planned a new expedition to the distant territory of Oregon. He approached the Rocky Mountains by a new line, scaled the summits south of the South Pass, deflected to the Great Salt Lake, and pushed examinations right and left along his entire course. He connected his survey with that of Wilkes' exploring expedition, and his orders were fulfilled. But he had opened one route to Columbia, and he wished to find another. There was a vast region south of this line invested with a fabulous interest to which he longed to apply the test of exact science. It was the beginning of winter. Without resources, adequate supplies, and so much as a guide, and with only twenty-five companions, he turned his face and made towards the Rocky Mountains. Then began that wonderful expedition filled with romance, daring, and suffering, in which he was lost to the *world nine months*, traversing 3500 miles in sight of eternal

snows, in which he revealed the grand features of Alta California, its great basin, the Sierra Nevada, the valleys of San Joaquim and Sacramento, revealed the real El Dorado, and established the geography of the western portion of the continent. In August 1844, he was again in Washington, and his fame was sealed. He was planning a third expedition while writing the history of the second, and before its publication in 1845, was again on his way to the Pacific, collecting his mountain comrades, to examine in detail the Asiatic slope of the Continent, which resulted in giving a new volume of science to the world, and California to the United States. After the conquest of California, in which he bore a part, he was made the victim of a quarrel between two American commanders, and stripped of his commission by court-martial. The President reinstated him, but Fremont would not accept mercy, but demanded justice. His connexion with the Government now ended. He was a private citizen and a poor man. He had been brought a prisoner from California, where he had been explorer, conqueror, peace-maker, and governor. He determined to retrieve his honour on the field where he had been robbed of it. One line more would complete his survey, the route for a great road from the Mississippi to San Francisco. Again he appeared in the Far West. His old mountaineers flocked about him, and with thirty-three men and one hundred and thirty-three mules he started for the Pacific. On the Sierra San Juan all his mules and one-third of his men perished in a more than Russian cold; and Fremont arrived on foot at Santa Fé, stripped of all but life. The men of the wilderness knew Fremont; they refitted his expedition: he started again; pierced the country of the fierce and remorseless Apaches; met, awed, or defeated savage tribes; and in a hundred days from Santa Fé, stood on the banks of the Sacramento. The men of California reversed the judgment of the court-martial, and Fremont was made the first senator of the Golden State.

FROST, WILLIAM EDWARD, Painter, was born at Wandsworth, in Surrey, September 1810. Having received an education suited to an artistic career, he was introduced, at the age of fifteen, to Mr. Etty, and, by his advice, was placed at Mr. Sass's academy in Bloomsbury, where he

attended for three years, and also studied at the British Museum. In 1829 he was admitted a student of the Royal Academy, and at that time commenced his career as a portrait-painter, and in the course of the next fourteen years painted upwards of three hundred portraits. Aspiring to higher success, he became, in 1839, a competitor for the gold medal of the Academy,—the subject being "Prometheus bound,"—and won the prize. He afterwards gained the prize of 100*l.* for his "Una alarmed by Fauns," exhibited at Westminster Hall. His principal pictures since exhibited are—"Christ crowned with Thorns," a "Bacchanalian Dance," "Nymphs Dancing," "Sabrina," (since engraved for the Art-Union), "Diana and Actæon," "Euphrosyne and Una," and the "Wood-nymphs,"—the last of which was purchased by her Majesty. Mr. Frost was elected a member of the Royal Academy in December 1846.

G.

GAGERN, BARON HEINRICH VON, some time premier Minister of the Regent of the German empire, and leader of the Gotha or Constitutional party in Germany, was born 1799. His father, a small proprietor, intended his son for the army; and the latter accordingly received his early education at a military school. The first peace of Paris, however, seeming to insure a long period of European tranquillity, it was resolved that Heinrich should be prepared for the civil service of the state. The battle of Waterloo disturbed these calculations, and the student took arms as a volunteer in the service of the Duke of Nassau, receiving a lieutenant's commission. At the close of this campaign he entered the university of Göttingen, and afterwards studied at Jena and Heidelberg. At this last seat of learning he took a most prominent part in the Burschenschaften—a union of societies intended to uphold, against the attacks of the various governments, the freedom of university life, and to foster a German spirit in the place of the narrow disposition which was then leading students of the same states to form themselves into petty exclusive associations. On leaving Heidelberg, he entered the service of the Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt as

Comptroller of the Ministry of the Interior, and shortly became private secretary to Grolman, then Minister of the Interior. His principles proving too liberal for this responsible post, he was compelled to resign the appointment, having filled it only a few months. In 1824 he was made a government assessor; and in 1829, after Grolman's death, a Hessian councillor of state, under the administration of Baron Thil. Von Keider, one of Gagern's colleagues, now proposed to assemble the Chambers in future, as hitherto, once in three years, but by turns as a financial and legislative assembly, so that the budget must be voted for six instead of three years. Gagern now took up his pen to protest strongly against the measure, as derogatory to the position of the Chambers, and a blow at the representative government. He now passed over to the Opposition. A pension was offered him by the government, which he, however, declined, probably thinking that it would limit his freedom of action. His fellow-citizens set about supplying the loss of his income by means of a subscription, which also he declined to accept. He was elected for Lorsch to the Diet of 1834–35, and was recognised as leader of the Liberal party. When, however, the illiberal policy of the government had succeeded in restricting political action, he withdrew from the Chamber, not wishing to lend himself to a representative comedy, played only for the benefit of the ruler, and went so far as to sell a portion of his hereditary domains, so as to disqualify himself for re-election. He settled now at Nierstein, on the Rhine, and engaged in practical farming, still watching with interest the course of events. In 1846 he again took part in public affairs, by presiding at a meeting held at Altzey to protest against the civil code which the government was intending to introduce. In 1846 he was elected deputy for the city of Worms. He instantly took his place in the front of the Opposition; and not contenting himself with a negative resistance to the new code, attacked the whole legislation of the ministry, especially denouncing the restriction on the press. The government waited for an opportunity to punish this freedom of expression; and when, a few weeks after, he printed his pamphlet on the constitution of Hesse-Darmstadt, the publication was altogether forbidden by the censorship. Upon this he did not hesitate to enlarge it, so as to contain a sufficient number of sheets to be exempt from the censors'

control. In this work he so strongly attacked the Toryism of the ministerial party, that one of them, named George, challenged him to fight a duel, pretending to be personally affronted. He further laid down for the encounter conditions of weapons, duration, and distance, which would have made the death of one, if not of both, combatants certain. Gagern's second declared that the proposed terms amounted to deliberate murder — stated his principal's readiness to meet his adversary in a simple pistol duel, and appointed a space within which the event must be accomplished. No answer was received, and the whole population of Darmstadt waited in suspense the issue of this quarrel, so dangerous to the life of their champion. The offered time expired, and was renewed by the second; but this also passed away without result, whereupon Gagern left for Tronsheim. At the next election he was returned for three districts. In the Diet of 1847 he was made president of the finance committee. On the 12th February, 1848, Bassermann had made a motion in the Baden Chamber, calling for a representation of the chambers of the German States, as well as of the German princes at the Federal Diet. Gagern followed up the stroke, by demanding in the Hessian Chamber that the exterior defence and interior legislation and administration of Germany should be confided to a provisional chief of the entire nation, surrounded by a council of princes, a popular representation, and a cabinet responsible to both. When, on the 20th of March, the Duke returned from Munich, he was met by the whole population of Darmstadt at the railway station. The people pressed about his carriage, which with difficulty could make way through the streets. Their bearing was respectful, but their demands were urgent. The prince had just seen something like it at Munich, and saw the time for concession was come. The next day, while Gagern was gone to Heidelberg to take counsel with some political friends upon the means of procuring the convocation of a free parliament of all Germany, the Duke resolved to take his son, the Hereditary Duke, into the government, and leave the management of affairs wholly to him. A great meeting was held that day, and the report spread that Gagern was to be the new minister. Meanwhile he had not been near the palace, and *only* returned late in the day. Upon his arrival he was summoned to meet the Duke, and became at once the chief

adviser of the government. A decree was published next day, acknowledging the insufficiency of the constitutional guarantees, and promising that the Duke would do all in his power to satisfy the wish of his people. Gagern next day appeared in the Chamber, and laid down the principles of his government. He was for upholding monarchical institutions, but widening their basis. He would build up the unity of Germany, but it must be established on freedom. The Hessian government would acknowledge the French republic, but for his own part he desired not to see Germany become, like France, a republic without liberty. With respect to the country at large, he saw no prospect of satisfying the patriotic desires of the nation, except by transforming the thirty-nine sovereignties of Germany into one state. He then related what efforts were making by the Heidelberg congress, and the governments of several southern German States, to bring about the fore-parliament which should draw up the programme of the reformation. The Chamber approved his sentiments. The beginning of the year 1848 had found the two leading powers of Germany busily concerting measures with Russia and France for the forcible extinction of the free spirit that was displaying its strength in some of the minor states of the Continent. Switzerland had brought her civil war to a happy termination, with a rapidity that disconcerted the calculations of the confederate despots; nevertheless they hoped, by diplomatic means, to retrieve their lost opportunity, and under the pretext of amicable intervention to undo the settlement of the Helvetic republic, or at least to create an excuse for coercing it by force of arms. Italy was also making demonstrations that called for immediate repression, and the more so, because her princes were either passively submitting to the popular impulse, or were actually leading the movement for reform and national independence. To meet the emergency, the Holy Alliance had been revived, and a compact was entered into between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, by which it was stipulated that the latter should direct her forces against the contumacious Swiss and Italians, while her own discontented provinces should be kept in check by the armies of her two allies. But the French revolution subsequently annihilated these plans, and the contracting parties were compelled to look each to their own safety, and reserve their armies for home service. On

the 1st of March the canton of Neufchatel threw off the Prussian yoke, and was admitted a member of the Swiss Confederation. Prussia submitted to the loss in silence. At the instance of Prussia and Austria, the German sovereigns then agreed to hold a congress at Dresden on the 25th of March, to concert measures against the danger with which they thought themselves threatened from beyond the Rhine. But when the appointed day arrived every German state was in the first heyday of revolution, and the sovereigns were all kept fast within their respective capitals by the fear that, if they departed from them, they might possibly not find it an easy matter to gain re-admission. Instead, therefore, of a congress of princes, there took place an assemblage of delegates from the people of all Germany, with the intent of remodelling the federal organisation. In this assembly Gagern at once took the first place, as leader of the new constitutional movement. The Diet sitting at Frankfort had already manifested its desire to promote that great work, to which end it had invited its seventeen constituents to send to it as many "men of public confidence" to assist in its deliberations. On the 31st of March, five hundred deputies from all parts of Germany held their first sitting in Frankfort, as a preliminary assembly for the formation of a national parliament. Almost the first question they had to decide was, as to what territories should send representatives to the central assembly; and it was resolved unanimously, that Schleswig-Holstein should be invited to exercise that privilege, as forming part of the German Confederation. The same was declared with regard to the provinces of East and West Prussia. Some difference of opinion existed with regard to Posen, but at last it was agreed that since the retention of that province might impede the re-establishment of the independent kingdom of Poland, which all Germany wished most ardently to see liberated from the barbarous yoke of Russia, the assembly would content itself with declaring that it would endeavour to find means for protecting the 700,000 Germans living in that province. The preliminary assembly (*vorparlament*) further resolved, in concert with the Diet, that a national assembly should immediately be elected by universal suffrage, in the proportion of one member for every 50,000 of the population, and that any *German should* be eligible thereto for any part of Germany.

Having made these arrangements the preliminary assembly adjourned, but left behind it a permanent committee of fifty. At his own request, Gagern, engaged too deeply as a minister in promoting his views among the statesmen of Germany, was left out of this council. This committee, with the seventeen "men of confidence," whose voices were paramount in the Diet, constituted from the beginning of April to the middle of May the supreme council that governed Germany. Besides drawing up a project of a constitution for the collective German States, another important part of its labours consisted in directing military operations against the armed republican party. The lake district of Baden was the only part of Germany where that party was not decidedly in the minority, and there only the republican flag was raised. It was hoisted in Constanz and Freiburg, under the protection of a free corps led by Hecker and Struve; but its defenders were met within a week (April 20), and totally routed by the forces of the Confederation. General von Gagern, the commander of the latter, was treacherously murdered in a parley before the battle began. Hecker escaped; Struve was taken prisoner, but soon after rescued. Freiberg was stormed on the 24th, Constanz was occupied on the same day, and the republic was brought to an end in both places. Herwegh, the poet and communist, arrived with his free corps from France too late to prevent the catastrophe that had befallen his brethren. His own 900 men were totally routed on the 27th by a single company of Wurtemberg troops, with a loss of 23 killed and 200 taken prisoners. Herwegh, with his wife, who was armed and present in the fight, escaped to Switzerland. The German parliament held its first sitting in Frankfort on the 18th of May, and elected Gagern as its president. On the 28th of June the parliament enacted a law, creating a provisional central power for the administration of all affairs, civil and military, foreign and domestic, which affect the whole of the German nation, that power to be confided to a regent (*reichsverweser*) elected by the National Assembly, and himself irresponsible, but acting through responsible ministers. On the following day the Archduke John of Austria was elected regent, by a very large majority. He arrived soon after in Frankfort, where he was received with great demonstrations of joy, and was solemnly installed in office on the 12th of July; on which day also the High

German Diet, born in 1815, held its seventy-first and last sitting, its power passing into the hands of the provisional central government. The Archduke, not unnaturally, chose his chief advisers from the Austrian party, and it is a proof of the conciliatory and unprejudiced spirit of Gagern and his adherents, who constituted the majority of the assembly, that they permitted Baron Schmerling, a man attached far more to the house of Hapsburg than to the idea of German unity, to remain the first minister of the regent whom they had created. When, however, the conduct of Prince Schwarzenberg, the premier at Vienna, as well as of the Austrians at Frankfort, had made it plain that no broad and generous patriotism was to be expected from the supporter of that power, the Assembly insisted upon Gagern becoming the first minister of the regent. After a series of struggles, during which (*see* RADOWITZ, and GERMANY, Regent of) the Archduke constantly thwarted the liberal views of his councillor, the question of the constitution of Germany and the determination of its powers, in some quarter or other, came before the Assembly for a full solution. On the 7th of January, 1849, Gagern thus stated his views and principles: "The populations of the different states of Germany are determined to rise into a body politic of power after a long interval of division into small fractions. They believe a close union, by which the great national interests of commerce and foreign policy shall find a proper expression, to be the best and only safeguard of their liberty. Now, the principal requisite for a union of this kind is equality of interests, language, and civilisation. This equality exists between all parts of Germany, and several of the provinces of Austria would, no doubt, be glad to join them, and we should be glad to have such an accession of strength. But these provinces are, as the Austrians say, and as the events of the last few weeks sufficiently show, indissolubly united with the rest of the Austrian empire, in which 25,000,000 inhabitants have nothing in common with us. These German provinces of Austria cannot belong to a Germanic empire, in which we expect to unite all the material sources of all the countries belonging to it into one political power. If they did, Austria would give up her own unity as a European political power. Therefore, let Austria be our ally, and let us unite under a *strong central power*, which shall leave all self-government

in interior matters, but shall at the same time stand as one body towards our foreign neighbours. Such a central government must be Prussian if it is to have sufficient strength, and it must be permanently settled in one dynasty, if it is not to endanger the existence of the states which now exist." After many discussions, the German National Assembly passed, on the 28th of March, 1849, a resolution confirming the constitution of Germany on this basis, and decreeing the imperial crown to the King of Prussia. A deputation, headed by Mr. Simson, repaired to Berlin, to convey the resolution of the Assembly to that personage. They were received with flattering but cautious words; the king affected to recognise in their message "the wishes of the German nation," but in the end told them that only the princes of Germany could dispose of such a dignity as the imperial crown, and therefore he could not receive it at their hands. This answer struck a death-blow to Gagern's German policy; and although the parliament passed a resolution, declaring that, on the refusal of the King of Prussia, the monarchy counting the next largest number of subjects was called on to assume the office and power of Regent of Germany, a message from Berlin, threatening to break up the Assembly upon any attempt to carry out the constitution without the concurrence of all the sovereigns, and also another message from the Archduke John, signifying his anxiety to resign the regency, indicated most plainly that the work of reconstituting Germany had failed. The deputies, in fact, were recalled by the several states, and after a few attempts on the part of the Radical party to assume the powers of the whole body, the Assembly disappeared. Gagern, never discouraged, called a meeting of the leading men of the Constitutional party at Gotha, to consider what could be done to revive the prospects of liberty in Germany. It was there resolved to persevere in the course of legality; and as a union of all Germany was no longer possible, that the members should labour to advance constitutional government in all the states where they had influence, and also endeavour to promote the voluntary union of as many states as were favourable to combination. The King of Prussia, who, in the proclamation of March 19, 1848, said,—"In consequence of these important events, we feel bound to declare before all things, not only in presence of Prussia, but in presence of all Germany, that

we demand the transformation of Germany from a confederation of states into a federal state,"—who, on the 3d of April, shrank from accepting the work which he had foreshadowed and promoted—now came forward with another project. On the 26th of May, 1848, he concluded a treaty, by which Prussia, Saxony, Hanover, Baden, Hesse-Cassel, and Hesse-Darmstadt, &c. were constituted a minor confederation within the Bund, for the purpose of mutual support, with a common administration by means of an executive appointed by all the governments, a representative parliament, and a high court for the settlement of differences between the contracting powers. It soon became evident that the deceived Constitutionalists were the only sincere parties to this scheme. The King of Hanover, who had joined it unwillingly, seceded almost as soon as he had joined. Jealous of the influence of Prussia, the King of Saxony, who had signed the treaty in a fit of fear, just as the Prussian soldiers had put down the insurrection of Dresden, returned to the side of Austria, which he had only left because of the temporary weakness of that power; and Frederick William himself was only anxious to secure a basis on which, as he hoped, he could rest his German policy, so as to be able to advance or retreat as circumstances might make it advisable. He amused the people with an appearance of representative government at Erfurt, where the deputies drew up a constitution, which the king pretended to accept. At a congress of princes, held at Berlin, nearly all the sovereigns accepted it likewise; but as he had allowed the King of Hanover to renounce his sealed engagements, so now the Elector of Hesse was permitted to do the same; a few others imitated the example. Meanwhile, Austria, which had never ceased to denounce the union as a violation of the federal sanctions, grew more menacing, and insisted on the formal surrender of that project. The king, urged by MM. Radowitz and Schleinitz to go forward, and by MM. Manteuffel and Gerlach to abandon the plan, continued to give the most heroic assurances of firmness and constancy to his confederates, and to the nation. The army was mobilised, and the landwehr, or national militia, called out. The tyranny of the Elector of Hesse (*see* HESSE-CASSEL, Elector of) at this moment precipitated the settlement of the question. Both the Hesses *were union states.* The elector called on Austria to inter-

fere: the people called on Prussia. Austria boldly responded: Prussia took a middle course, and merely sent in troops to occupy the military roads secured to her by treaties of many years' date. The forces of Prussia and Austria came in sight; shots were even exchanged. At this crisis the king gave way. Radowitz, the union, the loyal people of Cassel, Prussian honour — all were surrendered; nay more, Prussian troops, and a Prussian commissary, were associated with Austria in the work of breaking the legal opposition of the people of Hesse. The Parliament of the Union was from the spring to the autumn of 1850 the scene of Gagern's activity. The moderation and enlightenment of its members rendered it the hope of Germany. Like the Union, it has never been dissolved: the king has never had the moral courage to allude to it since he betrayed it. Its Assembly-house was the other day dismantled by stealth—the only positive sign that it has ceased to be. With its close the political career of Gagern has for the present terminated.

GAVAZZI, PADRE ALESSANDRO, an Italian Church Reformer, was born at Bologna in 1809. When sixteen years of age, as a Barnabite friar, he became one of the regular clergy of the Church of Rome. He was made Professor of Rhetoric at Naples, and illustrated the theory of the art by his own eloquence in the pulpits of the chief cities of Italy. He long pursued this course, and, proclaiming views of life and religion broader than those usually heard in Catholic assemblies, became at once a popular and an envied man. When, upon the death of Gregory, Pius IX. was raised to the papal chair, the views he had long entertained on the state of his country and his church were expressed with increasing freedom, and the liberal policy announced by Pope Pius on his accession found in Gavazzi an earnest and enthusiastic supporter. When the insurrection of the Milanese and the discomfiture of the Austrians became known in Rome, Gavazzi was there, and was called on by the people at once to speak to them on that great occasion. He proceeded to the Pantheon, and there pronounced, amid the acclamations of thousands, a sublime oration on the death of the patriots fallen at Milan. He now took the tricolor cross as his standard, and for weeks harangued crowds of citizens at the Colosseum on the

prospects and duty of Italians. The Pope was understood to favour these attempts to arouse the nation, and conferred on him the office of Chaplain-general of the Forces, then organising by the levy of volunteers and national guards. The Roman army marched 16,000 strong to the walls of Vicenza, accompanied by Gavazzi, who has been called the Peter the Hermit of this crusade against the foreigner. His eloquence excited the populace to unheard-of acts of self-sacrifices. Clothing, provisions, horses, and all the *matériel* of war, were brought by the people and contributed freely to the cause. At Venice, in the great square of St. Mark, he day by day addressed thousands, and filled the treasury of the restored republic by his appeals. Women tore off their ear-rings and bracelets, and the wives of fishermen flung their large silver hair-pins into the military chest. Several thousand pounds' worth of bullion was the result of these exertions. While Gavazzi was thus engaged, a reactionary spirit came over the Pope, who recalled the Roman legion. The Barnabite now passed into Tuscany, and made Florence ring with his appeals to the nation. Being expelled from the Duchy by the fickle Duke, Gavazzi took refuge in Genoa, whence he was recalled to restore quiet in Bologna, where the people had broken out into open mutiny against the Papal government. His return was in triumph, and order was restored by his presence. Rossi having by this time become the chief adviser of the Pope, shortly afterwards ordered Zucchi, the Roman general at Bologna, to seize Gavazzi,—an order which was punctually obeyed; and the priest was sent off, under a strong escort, to be thrown into an infamous prison at Corneto: but on his way thither the whole city of Viterbo rose to his deliverance, and Pius IX. was glad to order his release. On the flight of the Pope and the formation of a republican government, Gavazzi was reappointed Chaplain-general of the Forces, and began his preparations for the expected warfare. He organised a committee of noble Roman ladies to provide for the wounded, and superintended the military hospitals during the whole struggle. When, during the armistice concluded with Oudinot, a sortie of 14,000 Romans was made under Garibaldi to repel the King of Naples, who, with 20,000, had invaded the territory of the republic, Gavazzi accompanied them, and, having *witnessed the utter* rout of the invader, assisted the dying

and wounded on both sides. Returning to Rome, he occupied himself in sustaining the spirit of the people until they were completely overwhelmed by the immense forces of the French. At the close of the struggle he received an honourable testimonial and safe-conduct from Oudinot, and left his country, which he could no longer serve, to teach Italian for a living. While thus engaged, he was induced by the entreaties of his fellow-exiles once more to raise that voice which had often stimulated them to action and celebrated their triumphs. For about six months his lectures at the Princess's Concert Rooms were the resort of crowds, who were delighted and astonished at the high and rare oratory with which he assails the treachery and imposture of the Roman court. He has lately visited the chief towns of Scotland, and has been received with hearty welcome in the land of Knox.

GERMANY, EX-REGENT OF (JOHN-BAPTIST-JOSEPH-SEBASTIEN, Archduke of Austria), was born at Florence, January 20th, 1782, the fourth son of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, afterwards Leopold II. Upon the death of the Emperor Joseph II. the young prince, being then nine years of age, accompanied his brother to Frankfort, Pressburg, and Prague, to witness the coronation of their father. Having received from his tutors the slender education then thought sufficient for an Austrian prince, the young Archduke was left free to follow the bent of his inclinations, when he determined to study systematically the science of engineering, with the whole art of war. It has been said by experienced soldiers that none could surpass him in the rapidity and correctness with which he could survey a district. From his early youth he manifested a partiality for the natural researches, and also for mountain scenery and adventures. When he was rising into manhood, his brother the Archduke Charles was commanding the troops of the empire in the struggle with France, and John was anxious to share and profit by his experience; but in 1800, when John was but eighteen years of age, Charles laid down his command, and retired to Bohemia. John remained with the German army, and upon the deposition of Baron von Kray was intrusted, inexperienced as he was, with the supreme *command.* Experienced officers, however, were

placed by his side, and a desperate effort was made to retrieve the fortune of the campaign. On the 3d of December, 1800, the decisive battle of Hohenlinden was fought, when the Austrians lost 14,000 men and all their guns. On the 14th of the same month the battle of Salzburg took place, with no better success. The young prince used every exertion to keep up the spirit of his troops, sharing their privations and never shrinking from danger; but all was in vain. The Archduke Charles now, at the entreaty of the Government, reassumed the command of the army of Germany, and in the next February the peace of Luneville was concluded. John repaired to Vienna, where he charged himself with the direction of two valuable institutions for the education of cadets in the military sciences. In September 1800, he obtained permission to make a visit to the Tyrol. Here he gratified his passion for mountain scenery, and at the same time was struck with the capability of the passes and fastnesses of the northern frontier for fortification. The Tyrol was then a country almost unknown, even to its rulers. John, however, in 1802, prepared plans for fortifying it, and for organising its population, and from that time forward paid a yearly visit to its mountains. He next made a similar tour of inspection in Venetia and the Alpine provinces. When not travelling, his situation was anything but agreeable. With simpler habits and more elevated tastes than his brothers, he, like Charles, had made himself immensely popular by his active sympathy with the nation, then sorely tried by war and taxation. The Emperor is said to have observed once to Prince Charles von Schwarzenberg, "My brother John is a learned man, and also a brave man; he has only one fault,—he does what he ought not to do, and what he ought to do he leaves undone. You see all dissatisfied and ambitious people depend on my brother and my cousins of Modena." The Emperor, however unwilling to see his more active brother brought into contact with the nation, was not unwilling to see them working in other ways to establish the imperial throne; and accordingly John was, for a time, much engaged with the business of the state. In 1805 the war again broke out, and John commanded a portion of the Austrian army. On the 4th of December, the day of the unfortunate battle of Austerlitz, the brothers were *only a few marches* from Vienna; but they arrived there too

late to prevent the peace of Pressburg, by which John lost his favourite Tyrol. His attachment to a mountain life and manners again showed itself after the peace, and he turned his steps towards Styria, which he studied with as much zeal as he had formerly the Tyrol. The peace was of brief duration, and John was again busy in the field. The peace of Vienna, concluded October 14, 1809, terminated disastrously another period of the long struggle with Bonaparte; and John, depressed with the misfortunes of his country and the unjust reproaches of his family, retired to Styria. He here attempted to introduce into Austria a higher literature and worthier art, with which view he founded the Johanneum at Grätz — an institution which has proved of great advantage to men of science. The return of Napoleon from Elba called him once more into the field. On the final conclusion of the war he travelled with the Archduke Louis through France, and visited this country, inspecting our great industrial establishments, and acquiring useful information upon the economy of our manufactures and commerce. After his return to Austria, in April 1816, he fixed his summer residence in the old romantic castle of Thurnberg, which his taste and liberality rendered a true seat of the Muses. The thirty-three years' peace now commenced, which, had it not been for the sightless, retrograde policy of Prince Metternich, might have borne the richest fruits of German unity, strength, and prosperity. His Imperial Highness totally disapproved of this policy; he even combated it as far as it was possible. Some there are who think he might have done more by retiring completely from all political connexion with those who supported the system. Be this as it may, he was regarded as the man, the hero, of the people— the simple, unaffected friend of the mountain and valley cottager. This sufficed to render him an object of suspicion to the Government. The jealousy of the Emperor Francis compelled him to keep far away from his beloved Tyrolese, and he therefore became the more attached to the Alps, and in the mountains of Styria he created for himself a wide sphere of activity and beneficence. The chasm that separated him from the court and high aristocracy was widened by an event of a romantic character. In 1828 he became enamoured of and married, morganatically, the daughter of the postmaster of Aussee, who assumed the name of Madame

Victoria," which adorns the gallery of Buckingham Palace; and that of "Huskisson," a cast of which was set up at Liverpool in 1847.

GIBSON, RT. HON. THOMAS MILNER, a Politician, was born 1807, the only son of Major Thomas Milner Gibson, of the 87th regiment. He was a wrangler at Cambridge, and first entered Parliament, in 1837, as Conservative member for Ipswich; but, two years later, having changed his opinions he resigned his seat, and appealed again to his constituents. Having been defeated he remained for some time out of Parliament, having contested Cambridge without success. During the interval of his parliamentary career he threw himself with heart and soul into the great movement which had for its object the abolition of monopoly in food, and became one of the most successful orators of the League. In 1841 he was invited to stand for Manchester; and after a smart contest with Sir George Murray, was returned for that important constituency. In 1846, at the conclusion of the Anti-Corn-law agitation, when Lord John Russell had taken office, and declared that his general policy was to carry out to their natural consequences the principles of free trade embodied in Sir Robert Peel's recent legislation, the minister sought to strengthen his cabinet by incorporating with it some of the leading members of the League, and the great skill, business habits, and persevering character of Mr. Gibson, marked him for selection; he accordingly became Vice-president of the Board of Trade, and held that office until it was thought that his connexion with the Government embarrassed him in his relations to his constituents. There is, perhaps, no greater favourite with a popular audience or "the House" than Mr. Gibson.

GIFFARD, DR., Journalist, editor of "The Standard," is a native of Ireland. He has always taken a conspicuous part in the discussion of Irish politics, being ever a warm and constant supporter of Protestant influence. "The Standard" was started in May 1827, to oppose Mr. Canning's government, and to support the Duke of Wellington, Sir Robert Peel, and their four seceding colleagues. It was—so to speak—the offspring of the "St. James's Chronicle,"

of which Dr. Giffard has been editor since April 1819. From that time to the present Dr. Giffard has been one of the chief writers in the columns of these Conservative papers.

GILFILLAN, THE REV. GEORGE, a Critic and popular Essayist, was born in 1813, at Comrie, where his father was minister of the Secession church. Having been educated for the ministry, and duly licensed, he was settled over a congregation in Dundee, where he now labours. Mr. Gilfillan's reputation has been of the most rapid growth. He has commenced his career in criticism, where most authors are glad to end theirs. Having cultivated literary habits he became, about eleven years ago acquainted with Mr. T. Aird, editor of the "Dumfries Herald," who perceiving his ability, requested him to write sketches of the leading men of the age. Their vivacity, boldness, and insight, elicited much applause; and they were, in 1845, collected and enlarged, to form the "Gallery of Literary Portraits," by which their author is now so well known. A second "Gallery" has since been filled with pictures from the same hand. Mr. Gilfillan has appeared occasionally as a lecturer, but with success not correspondent to his literary name and fortune. He has published, in his clerical capacity, "A Discourse on Hades," and "Five Discourses on the Abuse of Talent," and other moral themes. His latest work, "The Bards of the Bible," is an endeavour to bring into view the poetic features of the inspired writings.

GIOBERTI, VINCENTIO, an Italian Reformer, was born in 1803. He first attracted attention about 1841, when he was deprived of his professor's chair of Moral Philosophy at Turin by the influence of the Jesuits, who found fault with the boldness and originality of his metaphysical theories, though in the main they were those of Rosmini, the foremost philosopher of modern Italy. Deprived of his income and debarred from professional advancement, he did not succumb and sink into hopeless obscurity. "*Cette tête est une puissance*," were the words of Mirabeau; and Gioberti felt within him powers and capabilities which convinced him that, single-handed, he was more than a match for any aggregate of mediocrities arrayed against him. He left Turin to the uncontrolled guidance of the fathers, and sought out a free resting-place, exclaiming, in the words of

Tully, "*Abibo, et ubi invenero liberam civitatem, in ea conquiescam.*" He fixed his abode at Brussels, sat down to his desk, and shook all Italy with his pen. His first volumes, printed at Brussels, treated of the pre-eminence and claims of Italy in all the walks of science, art, war, and industry (*del primato*, &c.); these had an enormous circulation in the Peninsula, though prohibited by the same influence which had ousted him from his chair. But though such dragons can keep watch and debar access to chairs and pulpits, the printing-press is not to be withheld from the suitorship of intellect; and having touched a chord which vibrated through every Italian heart, Gioberti followed out his inductions by a powerful appeal to his fellow-countrymen to drive out the Germans and repossess their own land, freed from the footsteps of the Vandal. Here the Jesuits were again at work in denouncing and suppressing his book. He followed up the blow by a direct attack on themselves as obstacles to improvement, and as so many agents of Austria. This volume is entitled "Prolegomena," and raised a perfect hurricane in the Peninsula. Father Curci, a Neapolitan Jesuit, published a volume in reply, well written and even witty, but it fell unnoticed. It only served as a puff to the original work, inasmuch as the walls of Modena, Turin, and Naples, were placarded with the "Risposta a Gioberti," when nobody was allowed by the censorship to read the book inculpated, and hence its clandestine demand became still more considerable. The upshot of his writings was to prepare the mind of Italy for the death of Gregory, which he foresaw would necessarily be the signal for an outbreak. In the system propounded by Gioberti, from his first work to his last, Italy was called on to form a grand federative union, with the Pope as chairman. This idea caught the religious as well as the political mind of the people, and was the watchword of all subsequent movements. Upon the accession of Pius IX., and the resolve of the King of Sardinia to enter upon a constitutional career, Gioberti was called into prominence. He became an adviser of the crown, was enrolled, and even elected President of the Chamber at Turin. In the spring of 1848 he was deputed to visit the Pope, and cement a cordial feeling between the two potentates. The influence he exercised at this time in Italy *may be inferred* from a few lines found in a letter dated

Rome, May 28, 1846:—"Gioberti is here, and is nightly surrounded by the Romans. For the last three evenings he has been obliged to come forth on the balcony and address an enthusiastic crowd, who hang on every word, and believe him inspired. The scene is most picturesque. Two attendants stand on each side of the orator, holding out large torch-lights, which illuminate his countenance and part of the auditory beneath. He constantly deprecates republicanism, and exhorts the Romans to confide in the pontiff and rally round his venerable throne. In this he has been most successful, and has created quite a reaction in favour of Pio Nino, whose popularity required no less an aid than Gioberti could bring to the rescue." When the hollowness of the pseudo-liberal Pope had been proved, Gioberti, who loved the Church (which in all his warfare he had forborne to assail) yet more than the people, saw his hopes of liberal government under a pontiff destroyed, and his system fall into contempt: he has since occupied a private station.

GIRARDIN, EMILE DE, a French Journalist, was born, probably in Paris, about 1802, and is said to be the illegitimate son of Count Alexander Girardin, but was baptised in the name of Lamotte. He was educated in one of the Gymnasia of the capital, and when about twenty employed a small sum of money, bequeathed to him by his mother, in establishing a literary journal, to which he obtained a good number of subscribers. Having signed his articles in the name of Girardin, his father commenced legal proceedings against him for an unlawful assumption of his name. In spite of an adverse judicial decision, Emile retained his name, and also contrived to escape the conscription from his inability to give the name of his birthplace, or so much as to declare himself a Frenchman. The Revolution of February found him an Inspecteur des Beaux Arts. Shortly after that event, he became the editor of the "Journal des Connaissances Utiles, of the "Panthéon Littéraire," of the "Musée de Familles," and of the "Voleur," displaying great industry, and that practical tact which has always distinguished him. These journals having failed one after another, he published a book called "Emile," which had no better success. M. Girardin had now no fortune but his pen, and he had lately married the clever Delphine

Gay, who was in a similar position. Under these circumstances he associated himself with an adroit man of business, one M. Boutemy, no richer than himself, and the two projected the "Presse" newspaper, since become so celebrated throughout Europe. The prospectus, written with a clever audacity, announced a journal which was to be both larger and cheaper than any then published in France, and to be the property of a joint-stock company. The scheme succeeded, the shares sold rapidly; in 1836 "La Presse" appeared, and took its place at once as an established newspaper. The success of the prospectus is the more remarkable, as, in 1832, Girardin had founded a company of proprietors for the publication of a literary journal, and was prosecuted for having defrauded the shareholders by paying dividends out of capital. He was acquitted of this charge by the court, and the rapid subscriptions for the shares of "La Presse" seem a sufficient answer to it on the part of the public. When a year old, the newspaper reckoned as many as 15,000 subscribers. From the first day of its existence, the "Presse" was better made up than any of its contemporaries. These were all merely political papers, and relied for success upon their leading articles. The "Presse" took care that there should not be a fact of the least importance—not a promotion in the army, the navy, the clergy, the municipal bodies—not a scientific, mechanical, or commercial discovery, nor an important cause pleaded, which should remain unrecorded in its columns. Girardin gave out that he would make war upon the cliqueism of the Parisian press as it then existed. He made a merit of being a man of no party, and took for his motto, *Au jour le jour*. True to his motto and the practical, money-getting character of his speculation, he has supported and renounced, in turn, every minister and every opposition chief. To two principles only has he been constant—hostility to England and advocacy of Russia. His accomplished wife came to his aid in the work of increasing the attractiveness of his paper, and wrote in the "Presse" a series of most amusing articles, entitled, "Causeries Parisiennes," with immense success. Always busy consulting the tastes of his subscribers, Girardin further invented the Roman Feuilleton, as it is called—a novel or tale, written in an *ad captandum* fashion, of which about a dozen columns are *published per diem*. Alexandre Dumas, George Sand, De

Balzac, Fréderic Soulie, and other writers, were engaged at enormous rates of remuneration, and increased immensely the circulation of the journal. With increasing subscribers, the advertisements rapidly multiplied, as Girardin had foreseen. It has been said, with truth, that he was the first to teach the French public the use of the newspaper advertising sheet. In 1846 the Compagnie Duveyrier agreed to pay a hundred thousand francs per annum for a limited number of columns. Ten years after its establishment, "La Presse" was yielding a revenue of 8000*l.* a-year. Its financial history, from 1848 to December 2, 1851, was probably less satisfactory to its proprietor; at the latter date it was suppressed, with all the independent journals, by order of M. Bonaparte. In 1834 Girardin obtained a seat in the Chamber of Deputies by the influence of the ministry, of which he was then an ardent supporter, and was returned for Bourganeuf. In 1836 an event occurred which leaves an indelible stain on his memory. Moved, less even by personal rancour than by a desire to improve the speculation in which he had embarked, he attacked Armand Carrel, of the "National," so grossly in the columns of "La Presse," that a duel took place, in which the greatest journalist and one of the noblest patriots France has known fell by the hand of this adventurer. He was re-elected for Bourganeuf in 1838, and again in 1839, when the Chamber declared the return void on account of his inability to prove himself a French citizen. He, however, found his way back into the national parliament, and during the last years of Louis Philippe's reign gave M. Guizot, his former ally, considerable trouble. At the Revolution of February he was particularly active, and received immediately from Louis Philippe the act of abdication. He failed, however, most completely in gaining the confidence of any considerable body of Frenchmen. When Cavaignac was invested with the chief authority, Girardin was confined for a time, as a precautionary measure. He continued to write without any fixed principle until Louis Napoleon Bonaparte suspended his paper.

GLADSTONE, RT. HON. WILLIAM EWART, a Conservative ex-Minister of State, is the son of Sir John Gladstone, a wealthy merchant of Liverpool, where he was born, 1809. He was educated at Eton and Christ-Church, Oxford. Having

travelled for a short time on the Continent, he entered parliament, in 1834, as member for Newark. Old members of the House speedily recognised in his mercantile origin, his university success, and especially in his remarkable business aptitudes, much which recalled Peel's early days; and Sir Robert himself was not slow to discern the value of the new accession to the Conservative ranks, and took him into his short-lived government as Secretary of the Colonial Department. He returned, in the spring of 1835, to the opposition benches, until September 1841, when he was made Vice-president of the Board of Trade, being the only young man in the cabinet. As Lord Ripon, the President of the Board, was in the other house, it devolved upon Gladstone to explain and defend the commercial policy of the cabinet. He was, in truth, a right hand of the Government. His deferential and self-possessed oratory pleased the House; and a *quasi*-commercial smartness satisfied the numerous deputations which visited his office that the business of the nation was in qualified hands. In May 1843 Gladstone became the head of his department, and remained at this post until Peel's retirement in 1845. During the ministerial crisis of the spring of 1851 he was consulted by Lord Stanley with a view to a cabinet appointment, but declined the advances of the noble Protectionist. Mr. Gladstone has since appeared in a character higher than any which political rank can confer, by his noble endeavours to ameliorate the lot of the thousands of Neapolitans, including cabinet ministers, ambassadors, and half a parliament, who now groan in galleys and dungeons, subjected to treatment which nature and humanity alike abhor, for having striven to support a constitution which Ferdinand had promulgated and sworn. Mr. Gladstone visited the prisons and places of punishment, and, having exhausted every private means of expostulation with the Government of Naples, published his letters to Lord Aberdeen, to place on record the abhorrence which the most Conservative politician must feel at the cruelties of despotism. The "Letters" have been sent by the British Government to the court of every European state. Mr. Gladstone has represented the University of Oxford since 1847. He is a distinguished member of the High-Church party, and has written two works in defence of *its principles.*

GLEIG, THE REV. GEORGE ROBERT, Author, was born in 1796, the son of a Scottish bishop. He was educated at Oxford, but left that University to join as a volunteer a regiment then marching through the city for Lisbon, and soon obtained a commission in the 85th Regiment of Light Infantry. His career in the Peninsula formed subsequently the subject of his most amusing book "The Subaltern," published in 1825. He served in the campaign of Washington, and was severely wounded at the capture of that city. He fought at the battle of Waterloo, and was again wounded. On his recovery he retired on half-pay, married and took orders, and in 1822 was presented by the Archbishop of Canterbury to the living of Ivy-Church, Kent, valued in the "Clergy List" at 405*l.* per annum. In 1834, he was made chaplain of Chelsea Hospital. In 1842, Mr. Gleig became Chaplain-General to the Forces; and having devised a scheme for the education of the soldiers, he was, in 1846, appointed Inspector-General of Military Schools. Mr. Gleig is a fertile author, having written, besides the "Subaltern," "Campaigns at Washington and New Orleans," "Chelsea College and Chelsea Pensioners," "Chronicles of Waltham," "Country Curate," "History of England," "Germany Visited," "The Hussar," "Military History of Great Britain," "Two Volumes of Sermons," "Soldier's Help to Divine Truth," "Things Old and New," "Chelsea Veterans," and some other books and magazine contributions.

GLYN, GEORGE CARR, Banker, and Chairman of the largest English railway, born 1797, is the son of Sir Richard Carr Glyn, a London banker. Mr. Glyn first became known as one of the principals of the great banking-house of Glyn, Hallifax and Co., Lombard Street. When it was proposed to form a company for the purpose of constructing a railway from London to Birmingham, Mr. Glyn came forward, and took an active part in the undertaking. On the 21st of October, 1830, he was made a Director of the Company, and his name is inserted in the same capacity in the Incorporation Act of May 1833. Four years afterwards, he was unanimously elected chairman of the London and Birmingham Railway Company; and when the same association, strengthened by union with the Grand Junction Company, assumed the title of the London and North-Western

Company, he was chosen chairman of the new Board. In this capacity he presides over the most powerful railway association in the world, and administers a property estimated at the value of thirty millions sterling, distributed along four hundred miles of line. His half-yearly statements and elucidations of the Company's affairs are looked forward to by scores of thousands with an anxiety equal to that which the Chancellor of the Exchequer's budget awakens. Mr. Glyn is also a Director of the St. Katherine's Dock Company, and the Globe Insurance Company. He sits in Parliament as representative for Kendal.

GOMM, SIR WILLIAM, Commander of the Army in India. At the age of fourteen he carried the colours of the 9th Regiment in action in Holland, and attracted the attention of old soldiers to his gallantry. From that time to the present, Sir William Gomm has been continually employed with troops; except, indeed, during the period when he was a student at the senior department of the Royal Military College, where he gained no small credit for his proficiency in the various branches of study. Subsequently to the service in Holland, just mentioned, Sir William served either with the 9th Regiment, in which he attained the rank of major and brevet-lieutenant-colonel, or on the staff, in various expeditions, including Copenhagen and Walcheren, with the siege of Flushing. He served subsequently through the campaigns of 1808 and 1809, including the battles of Rolera, Vimiera, and Corunna. He proceeded again to Spain in 1810, serving principally on the staff; was present at every action of importance, and did not once quit the Duke of Wellington's army in that country until the conclusion of the war. He was afterwards at Waterloo as quartermaster-general to Picton's division. Sir William Gomm was among the officers who, on account of superior merit, were at the conclusion of the war transferred from the Line to the Guards. He long commanded a battalion of the Coldstream, and was in command of the brigade, consisting of the two battalions, when he attained the rank of major-general. He was shortly afterwards, in 1839 or 1840, appointed to the command of the troops in Jamaica. On his return to England thence he was appointed to the command of the northern *district; and whilst* he was holding that command in 1845,

he was appointed civil governor and commander of the forces in the Mauritius. On Sir Charles Napier's resignation in the spring of 1851, Sir William Gomm was appointed to the command of the army of India, which he still holds.

GOODALL, FREDERICK, Painter, was born in London, September 17, 1822. He commenced his artistic studies at the age of thirteen, under the direction of his father, Mr. Edward Goodall, the eminent engraver. At the age of fourteen he gained the Iris medal of the Society of Arts for a drawing of Lambeth Palace. He commenced his first oil-picture, "Finding the Dead Body of a Miner by Torchlight," for which the Society of Arts awarded him the large silver medal. In September 1838 he visited Normandy. Of this visit he says, in a sketch of his own career given in the "Art Journal," "My father accompanied me thither, and when we arrived at Rouen I was so enchanted with the picturesque views of the city, that I did not wish to go any farther; to which he consented, after some hesitation, for I was not quite in my sixteenth year. He gave me ten pounds, telling me to make it last as long as I could, saying at the same time, 'Be sure and save enough to bring you home again.' This was my first lesson in economy, for after staying there a fortnight, and going down the Seine to Havre, I reached London with a folio of sketches, and five pounds in my pocket." In 1839 Mr. Goodall exhibited his first picture at the Royal Academy, "French Soldiers drinking at a Cabaret." He has since visited Brittany, North Wales, and Ireland, and produced a large number of popular pictures. Among these may be named "The Village Festival," "Gipsy Encampment," "The Soldier's Dream," "Hunt the Slipper," and "The Post Office."

GOUGH, HUGH, VISCOUNT, a practical Soldier, was born 1779, the son of George Gough, Esq., of Woodstown, county of Limerick. He entered the army in 1791, served at the capture of the Cape of Good Hope and the Dutch fleet in Saldanha Bay, 1795, and afterwards in the West Indies, including the attack on Porto Rico, the brigand war in St. Lucia, and capture of Surinam. He proceeded to the Peninsula in 1809, and commanded the 87th at the battles of Talavera, Barossa, Vittoria, and Nivelle, for which

engagements he has received a Cross. He also commanded this regiment at the sieges of Cadiz and Tarriffa, where he was wounded in the head. At Barossa, his regiment captured the eagle of the 8th French regiment, and at Vittoria captured the *baton* of Marshal Jourdan. At Nivelle, he was again severely wounded. He commanded the land force at Canton (for which he was made a G.C.B), and during nearly the whole of the operations in China—for which service he was made a baronet. On the 29th December, 1843, with the right wing of the army of Gwalior, he defeated a Mahratta force at Maharajpore, and captured 56 guns, &c. In 1845 and 1846, the army under his personal command defeated the Sikh army at Moodkee, Ferozeshah, and Sobraon; for which services he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, and was raised to the peerage. During the last desperate struggle with the Sikhs in 1848–49, Gough displayed his usual valour and determination, and subdued the proud enemy, though at a great expenditure of human life. The next year he received from his sovereign additional rank in the peerage, and from the East India Company a pension of 2000*l.*

GRAHAM, THE RT. HON. SIR JAMES ROBERT GEORGE, Bart., an ex-Minister of State, and a leader of the Free-trade Conservative party, was born June 1792. When Earl Grey was called into power, Sir James was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, and a member of the Cabinet, which office he held till 1834, when he retired on account of the extent to which the Cabinet contemplated carrying out the principles of their measure of reform. At the head of the Admiralty Sir James effected improvements in the civil administration of the navy, and reduction in the estimates nearly to the amount of a *million*. There is little doubt that he possesses considerable abilities as an official and a debater. His forcible and eloquent exposition of the emoluments of privy-councillors, the salaries of public officers, and the costs of foreign missions, greatly contributed to fix public attention on the lavish expenditure of Government. His political history exhibits him in every phase of opinion. In 1821 he wrote a pamphlet in favour of the Corn-laws, and advocating some bold measure for getting rid of the *national debt*. In 1832 he assisted to carry the Reform Bill.

In his address to the electors at the election of 1841, he stated "that he regarded every personal sacrifice light in comparison with the sacred duty of defending the Protestant Church, of combining education with religion, and of defending the monarchy against the inroad of democratical principles inconsistent with its safety; he was the enemy of election by ballot; opposed to a further extension of the elective franchise, and an advocate of protection to British agriculture on the principles of the present Corn-laws." Finally, as a member of Peel's government, he helped to abolish these very laws, and has lately committed himself to an uncompromising opposition to monopoly. As a Whig, Sir James represented Carlisle from 1820 to 1830, in which year he was elected for the county in opposition to the Lowther interest; as a Conservative he unsuccessfully contested the county in 1837, being in a minority of 519 votes, and was elected for the Pembroke boroughs. He now sits for the pocket borough of Ripon.

GRAHAM, WILLIAM A., Secretary of the Navy of the United States, born 1800, in North Carolina, and represented that state in the United States Senate two years, viz., from 1841 to 1843. In August 1844, he was selected Governor of the State, to which office he was re-elected in 1846, retiring at the expiration of his second term in January 1849. His administration as governor was popular, and he is considered in North Carolina as one of the most talented of the Whig-Conservative leaders in that State.

GRANT, JAMES, Journalist, Editor of the "Morning Advertiser," born in Scotland about 1806. Mr. Grant is the author of "Random Recollections of the House of Commons," "The Great Metropolis," and other volumes.

GREY, HENRY GEORGE, EARL, Colonial Secretary of State, eldest son of Charles, second Earl Grey, was born December 28, 1802. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge; was Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies from 1830 to 1833, when he resigned, being unable to concur in Mr. Stanley's plan for Negro emancipation. In 1833 he was appointed Under-Secretary for the Home Department, but resigned on the breaking up of his father's

administration in July of the same year; was Secretary at War from 1835 till 1839; first returned to Parliament for Winchelsea 1829; sat for Higham Ferrars 1830, and for Northumberland from 1831 till the dissolution in 1841. Upon the decease of his father he was removed to the Upper House, and came into office with Lord John Russell in 1846. Earl Grey's political achievements have not procured for him half so much consideration as he derives from being the son of the great author of the Reform Bill.

GROTE, GEORGE, Banker, political Reformer and Author, was born in 1794, at Clay Hill, near Beckenham, Kent. His ancestors came to this country from Germany, and his grandfather founded, in conjunction with Mr. George Prescott, the banking-house in Threadneedle Street, which still bears the name of the original partners. Mr. Grote was educated at the Charter-house school, and entered his father's establishment as a clerk in his sixteenth year. His leisure was for many years afterwards spent in unremitting study. About 1823, he commenced writing a "History of Greece," upon which work he steadily laboured till the Reform movement of 1830–1831, called him forward into public life. He espoused the cause of radical reform, and successfully contested the city of London in December 1832; which he represented in three successive parliaments, until his retirement in 1841. His first publication was a pamphlet in reply to Sir James Mackintosh's "Essay on Parliamentary Reform," in the "Edinburgh Review;" it was printed anonymously in 1821. He has since written a small work on the "Essentials of Parliamentary Reform," an article on "Mitford," in the "Westminster," and another on Niebuhr's "Heroic Legends of Greece," in the "London and Westminster Review." In Parliament he was considered to have in especial charge the advocacy of the ballot, a question upon which he regularly made an annual motion. He has for some time retired from active participation in politics, and has thus recently been able to give to the world the earlier books of his "History of Greece."

GUIZOT, FRANCOIS-PIERRE-GUILLAUME, an Historian and ex-Minister of France, was born October 1787, *the son of an advocate* at Nimes, who perished on the scaf-

fold during the Revolution. Guizot was educated at Geneva, and at the age of twelve made himself master of the learned languages. German had become to him a second mother-tongue, and English and Italian completely familiar. He left Geneva in 1805, and after remaining some time in Languedoc he proceeded to Paris, with the view of being called to the bar, an intention which he does not seem to have prosecuted with seriousness. About this time Mademoiselle Pauline de Meulan was editing a magazine, called "The Publicist," which enjoyed a considerable reputation. The lady being suddenly attacked with illness, the work was threatened with a fatal interruption. M. Guizot made an anonymous offer to conduct it, which was accepted. He thenceforward became its chief contributor, and the friend of the editor, and so began his literary career. In 1809, Guizot published his first regular work, an edition of Gerard's "French Synonyms," with a dissertation on the language. His "Lives of the French Poets," a translation of Gibbon's "Decline and Fall," "The State of the Fine Arts in France," "Annals of Education," and smaller works soon followed. In the course of the winter of 1812 he married the lady whose acquaintance he had made under such extraordinary circumstances. In the same year he obtained the chair of Modern History in the University of Paris. The exalted idea of his talents, which prevailed among the old aristocracy of France, made it easy for Guizot to obtain important posts under both the restorations of the Bourbons. He was successively Secretary-General of the Ministry of the Interior and of that of Justice, and Director-General of the Administration for settling claims of indemnity. He belonged to the Liberal school under the Restoration, and fell with its heads, M. Decazes, M. Royer, Collard, and M. Camille de Jordan, in 1819, when the assassination of the Duc de Berry turned the scale in favour of the counter-revolutionary party. The severe measures of M. Villèle's administration called forth those political pamphlets from Guizot, which created a great sensation at the time, and their author was suspended in 1820 from his lectureship. In his retirement he renewed his studies and literary activity. His chief productions were "Memoirs relative to the English Revolution," in 25 vols. 8vo., followed by a "History of the English Revolution," in 2 vols.; "Memoirs relative to the History of France," and

"Critical Notices and Essays upon Shakespeare." He likewise wrote largely in the "Revue Francais," and in the "Globe." At this period his house in the Rue St. Dominique was the resort of the most distinguished men of the day, in both politics and literature. In 1828, the interdict on his Lectures was removed by the Martignac ministry, and he delivered the series published since as a "Course of Modern History," and the "History of Civilisation in Europe." At the age of forty-two M. Guizot was elected a member of the Chamber of Deputies, and took his seat in that Assembly in the eventful session of 1830, on which occasion he joined in the celebrated address which provoked Charles to issue his famous ordinances of July 25th, 1830. Upon the accession of Louis Philippe he was named Minister of the Interior, then certainly the most important post in the government. Since that period he has entirely devoted himself to politics, having written nothing but a "Life of Monk," and an "Essay on Democracy." The first ministry formed by Louis Philippe only lasted three months, and M. Guizot did not come again into power until two years afterwards, when a coalition Ministry was formed. In the cabinet of October 1832, presided over by Marshal Soult, Guizot was Minister of Public Instruction; and from that period, unless when filling the London embassy, he may be said to have formed a leading member of every administration. It is, however, as a member of the ministry of the 29th October, 1840—after he had filled the London embassy—that he has become best known to Englishmen, and has secured the longest lease of power. For seven years and a quarter he held the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, thus presenting a longer tenure of power than any minister since 1830. On entering on power in 1840, the task of M. Guizot was exceedingly difficult. England and France were startled by the projects and ambition of M. Thiers, and it was no easy matter to calm the French, and to dissipate the doubts of the English. But the device of *la paix partout, la paix toujours*, in a great degree succeeded, till the affairs of Tahiti again embroiled the two countries, and till the question of the Spanish marriages, arranged and accomplished with equal ill-faith, and in defiance of solemn treaty, again roused the suspicions of the slumbering lion. Guizot's conduct in this matter was tricky *and disreputable to* his diplomacy. The only merit which

can be accorded to M. Guizot, as a minister, is, that under his government the peace of Europe was preserved. But this merit belongs not chiefly, nor yet in the greatest degree, to him, for the whole of Europe was then disposed to be peaceable. He was, *par excellence*, the minister of the French *bourgeoisie*, but in becoming the minister of the middle classes in France, M. Guizot neglected their virtues and fostered their vices. The inglorious fall of the minister in the revolution of February, and his subsequent insignificance, are notorious. Sir E. Bulwer Lytton has drawn the character of M. Guizot in the subjoined verses, contained in the "New Timon:"—

And yet Astutio was a man of worth
Before the brain had reasoned out the heart;
But now he learned to look upon the earth
As peddling hucksters look upon the mart;
Took souls for wares, and conscience for a till;
And damn'd his fame to save his master's will.

Much lore he had in men, and states and things,
And kept his memory mapp'd in prim precision,
With histories, laws, and pedigrees of kings,
And moral saws, which ran through each division,
All neatly colour'd with appropriate hue—
The histories black, the morals heavenly blue!

But state-craft, mainly, was his pride and boast;
"The golden medium" was his guiding star,
Which means "move on until you're uppermost,
And then things can't be better than they are!"
Brief, in two rules he summ'd the ends of man—
"Keep all you have, and try for all you can!"

GURNEY, SAMUEL, Capitalist, born near Norwich, Oct. 18th, 1786. He came to London as an apprentice in 1802, entered business on his own account in 1807, and married the daughter of James Shepherd, of Ham House, Essex, in 1808, in which house he now resides. He is a member of the Society of Friends, and brother of the late philanthropic John Joseph Gurney, of Norwich, and of the late Mrs. Fry, and brother-in-law to the late Sir T. Fowell Buxton. He is one of the greatest living operators in the discount market, and his money transactions and influence on monetary affairs are very important.

GUYON, GENERAL, a successful commander in the patriotic Hungarian army, was born about 1815, the son of

a post-captain in the British navy. In 1830 he entered the Austrian service, and joined an Hungarian regiment. Having attained the rank of Major he became attached to the daughter of Field-marshal Baron Spleny, the commander of the Hungarian Life-guards. Upon his marriage with this amiable lady he left the army, and took some land upon which he resided, happy in the circle of his family, and in the general esteem of his neighbours. When, in September 1848, the hordes of Jellachich were poured into Hungary, and Kossuth's fiery words called the whole nation to arms, Guyon, long connected and thoroughly sympathising with the liberal party, offered his services as a volunteer. He was immediately invested with the command of an ill-armed battalion of the general levy, and at the head of this he contributed to the defeat of Jellachich at Sukaro. In the month of October he accompanied the Hungarian army to the Leitha, and was engaged in the battle of Schwachat, fought on the 30th. This rencontre took place under the walls of Vienna itself, but as the Viennese did not support the Hungarian attack upon the Imperialists by a sally, the Hungarian general, Moga, was compelled to beat a retreat. It was executed in tolerably steady order, however, and without molestation by Windischgrätz, who did not venture a pursuit. The moral impression of this incomplete battle was depressing. Vienna surrendered to the Imperial generals; but the gallant style in which the Hungarian right wing carried the village of Mannswerth with the bayonet was not forgotten in the Hungarian ranks. Guyon was the hero of that day. At the head of his battalion he three times repulsed the Serezans of Jellachich; his horse was shot under him, but he seized his pistols and led his men to the charge on foot; arming them, as fast as he could, with the muskets of the slain Austrians, in place of the scythes which many of them carried. He was promoted to the rank of colonel on the field itself, and in this capacity shared in the succeeding campaign. On the 18th of December the Imperial general, Simonich, at the head of 15,000 men, attacked the town of Tyrnau. This is an open place, and incapable of a regular resistance; but Guyon, determined upon saving the honour of the Hungarian arms, defended it with unabated vigour till night put a stop to the combat; and on this desperate *service he had* only a force of 1800 men. At Debreczin he

was raised to the rank of general. It was long given out by Görgey's friends that General Guyon did not possess the necessary qualifications for an independent command; but owed everything to lion-like, unflinching courage in executing that general's plans. He has since nobly overcome this disparagement, especially by his victory over Schlick, when with 10,000 men he stormed at Tarczal one of the finest positions in Hungary, defended by 15,000 picked Imperialists. Before the surrender of Görgey, Guyon had denounced him as a traitor, and refused to serve another hour under his orders. He was, however, persuaded to silence, and appointed to the command of Comorn. The fortress was then invested by the enemy, but he succeeded in entering at the head of twenty horsemen after the most romantic adventures. His men loved him enthusiastically, because, though he could only speak to them in broken Hungarian, he cheerfully shared with them in all the fatigues of the war, and was invariably to be found at the head of an assaulting column. The Hungarians took an especial pleasure in looking upon General Richard Guyon as the representative, among themselves, of English valour. When the traitorous submission of Görgey threw Hungary helpless into the hands of her enemies, Guyon shared the exile of Kossuth, in Turkey, where like Bem, he evinced his hatred for Russia, by embracing the Moslem faith that he might take arms under the Sultan. He is now Pacha of Damascus.

H.

HALEVY, FROMENTHAL, Musical Composer, was born in Paris at the beginning of the present century. His father was a German, his mother a Frenchwoman. As the boy showed a precocious understanding, and his father, like most of his countrymen, was devotedly fond of philosophy and *belles lettres*, the young Halevy was at an unusually early age sent to an academy. However, a few lessons on the pianoforte having been given him, with a view to employ his leisure moments, and to vary and relieve his attention, an invincible love of the musical art absorbed all his

thoughts. His father, finding at last that he could not surmount this propensity, wisely gave way, and placed his son, at ten years of age, at the great Conservatoire. There, so rapid was his progress, that, being only twelve years of age, he won the grand prize of harmony against all his seniors. Soon afterwards he had the still greater good fortune of attracting the attention of one whose name and works will endure as long as the art of music—at thirteen he studied composition under Cherubini. Only two years afterwards, when that great master was obliged to visit London (in 1815), so high an opinion did he entertain of the young Halevy, that he chose him as his temporary substitute to direct his class at the Conservatoire. In 1819 he won the prize for composition at the Institute, and was sent by the Academy of France to study in Italy. His first composition was "Pygmalion," a work which he offered to the Grande Académie de Musique. It was immediately accepted, and its combination of Italian melody with German harmony created a great sensation amongst the critics. In 1827 he gave the Opéra Comique a work, entitled "Phidias." Its success was such that another was immediately demanded. This was the "Artisan." His subsequent productions were "Il Dilettante," performed for two consecutive seasons by Malibran; a ballet, "Manon l'Escaut;" and in 1831, a ballet opera, "La Tentation." In 1832, Herold having suddenly died in all the flush of his triumphs, leaving his score of "Ludovic" imperfect, Halevy undertook the duty of finishing and producing it on the stage. In 1835 he produced, at the Académie de Musique, the opera "La Juive," which was immediately brought out in every capital in Europe. As if to show the versatility of his genius, he next produced, at the Opéra Comique, "L'Eclair." His grand opera, "Guido et Ginevra," followed. In 1838 he brought out a successful piece at the Opéra Comique; in 1842, "La Reine de Chypre," at the Académie; in 1843, "Charles VI." at the same theatre. In 1844 he produced the "Guitarero;" and in 1846, "Les Mousquetaires de la Reine," at the Opéra Comique. In 1848 he gave "Le Val d'Andorre," which was performed 165 nights running, and restored at once, and in spite of every inauspicious circumstance, the vogue and fortunes of the Opéra Comique. "La Fée aux Roses" was his next *effort, of which* a translation was performed in London.

Halevy has long since received the highest rewards his country could confer on him. At the court of Louis Philippe he enjoyed the highest favour. The unfortunate Duke of Orleans, and his noble-minded widow, the Duchess of Orleans, had placed him at the head of their chapelle. The Conservatoire conferred on him the title of Professeur de Haute Composition. He is an officer of the Legion of Honour, and of a number of foreign orders conferred on him by the different sovereigns who have listened to his compositions, and he enjoys the highest title that can reward exalted merit in France, that of Member of the Institute.

HALIBURTON, JUDGE, a humorous Author, popularly known by his *nom de plume* of "Sam Slick," is a judge of Nova Scotia. His earliest literary undertaking was a series of letters contributed, in 1835, to a weekly newspaper of Nova Scotia, and designed to show out the most peculiar features of the Yankee character. The letters attracted so much attention that they were collected into a duodecimo volume, and had an immense circulation, as well in England, where they were reprinted, as in the United States. In 1842 he came to England, as an *attaché* of the American Legation, and his observations on the aspects of British society were published the next year, under the title "Un Attaché; or, Sam Slick in England." Sam Slick's writings are remarkable for the combination of humour with sound, sagacious views of human nature as it exists, in a free, unsophisticated state, full of faith in its own impulses, untrammelled by the fetters of social etiquette, giving full play to its emotions, and ready to find friends among all with whom it may come into contact. Judge Haliburton has lately published under his pseudonyme a serious work, of historical value, on the settlement of New England.

HALL, SAMUEL CARTER, Editor of the "Art-Journal," and author of several books, was born about 1800. Mr. Hall's most successful volumes have been those in which his highly-talented wife has been also engaged. Amongst these may be especially named the work on "Ireland." Mr. Hall has laboured with great zeal and unfailing faith in himself and his subject for the popularisation of Art in England. He established, and at first carried on, the "Art-Journal," under

many discouraging circumstances, but by dint of perseverance, and a succession of courageous experiments, he at length hit the popular mind in the right way, and gained for his serial a very large amount of public support.

HAMPDEN, RENN DICKSON, D.D., Bishop of Hereford, "Low-Church" Divine, entered the University of Oxford in the year 1810 as a commoner of Oriel College, and passed his examination for the degree of B.A. At the same time with his predecessor in the chair of Moral Philosophy, Mr. Mill, of Magdalen College, Dr. Hampden's name appears in the first class of "Literæ Humaniores," and also of "Disciplinæ Mathematicæ et Physicæ" in 1813. Dr. Hampden subsequently obtained the prize for the Latin essay in 1814, and was successively fellow and tutor of Oriel College. In 1829, and again in 1831, he filled the office of Public Examiner in Classics; in 1832 he was Bampton Lecturer. In 1833 he was appointed by Lord Grenville Principal of St. Mary's Hall; and in 1834 he was elected White's Professor of Moral Philosophy. In 1836 he was nominated Regius Professor of Divinity by the head of the Whig Government. Then it was that party spirit detected heresies, till then invisible, in the Bampton Lectures then four years old; upon which a vote of censure was carried in Convocation by a grotesque coalition of Tractarians and anti-Tractarians, who merged for the occasion their theological differences in their common political rancour. But, notwithstanding this, in 1842, he was elected, by the Heads of Houses, Chairman of a Theological Board of Examiners, without the slightest opposition. In December 1847 he was appointed to the see of Hereford, when a violent, but of course fruitless, opposition, was made to his consecration by the High-Church party. Dr. Hampden has contributed articles both to the "Encyclopædia Metropolitana" and the "Encyclopædia Britannica."

HANOVER, GEORGE-FREDERICK-ALEXANDER-CHARLES-ERNEST-AUGUSTUS, King of, Duke of Cumberland and Teviotdale, in Great Britain; Earl of Armagh, in Ireland; Knight of the Garter, and G.C.H.; first cousin to the Queen of England—(only son of Prince Ernest *Augustus,* fifth son of King George the Third, by the Princess *Frederica*-Caroline-Sophia-Alexandrina, daughter of

Charles, late reigning Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, widow, first, of Prince Frederick-Louis of Prussia; secondly, of Prince Frederick-William, of Solms-Bramfels). The present king was born at Berlin, May 27, 1819; married 18th February, 1843, the Princess Alexandrina-Maria, daughter of Joseph, reigning Duke of Saxe-Altenburg, and has issue:—Ernest-Augustus-William-Adolphus-George-Frederick, Crown Prince of Hanover, born September 21, 1845; Frederica-Sophia-Maria-Henrietta-Amelia-Theresa, Princess, born January 9, 1848; Maria-Ernestina-Josephine-Adolphine-Henrietta-Theresa-Elizabeth-Alexandrina, born December 3, 1849. The late King of Hanover succeeded to the crown of that kingdom upon the death of his brother, King William the Fourth of England, 20th June, 1837, when, by the Salique law of Hanover, the two kingdoms were disunited. The late king died November 18, 1851, and was succeeded by his son, the present king, who unhappily suffers from a total deprivation of sight. England gained greatly by the kingdom of Hanover passing to another branch of the royal family of Great Britain; and this country is thereby fortunately divorced from the intimate involvements with German politics that formerly helped to lead us into wars.

HARDING, J. D., Painter, born October 1, 1797. If one may find a fault with Mr. Harding's works, it is, that we are almost too conscious of the artist in his productions. The effects are too palpable, the contrasts between light and dark too self-evident; and yet the *ensemble* is always brilliant and rich, and every individual work of the painter sure to command admiration. As a painter, he is skilled in the use of every weapon of his art—paints alike upon canvass, and paper, and stone—and has never been excelled in the breadth, richness, and facility, with which he handles every subject which he treats. He designs architecture with the brilliancy and dexterity of Bonnington, and possesses over the trees of the forest and park a mastery of delineation of which no other artist can boast. Some of his lithographic sketches of forest scenery, published in elementary books, strike upon the eye as fine pictures. The completed works of no artist can, perhaps, be measured by his sketches; but it may be said of Mr. Harding, as a landscape-painter, that his sketches are among the very finest which any artist has ever produced.

Like others of his fortunate brethren, he has pursued his art into a hundred countries, and brought home delightful reminiscences of Alps and Tyrolese mountains, Italian lakes, and quaint Norman cities, in his rich portfolio. It was in 1820, just as the art of lithography began to make some promise in this country, that Harding's attention was drawn to it, and seeing its capabilities, not only for the production of works of art, but that it would also be, as it has proved, an extraordinary channel for the dissemination of instruction by good examples, he devoted himself very much to its study, and the unfolding of its powers. With what success, the various lithograph drawing-books and other works he has published enable us to judge. His success tempted other men of talent into the same field, but more remarkably since the production of his "Sketches at Home and Abroad," in 1836, wherein he for the first time showed those atmospheric effects, by the printing of a tint, which have added so much to the beauty of the art. He has published four other works worth naming, viz. "Lessons on Art," "Lessons on Trees," "Elementary Art," and "The Principles and Practice of Art." In these his great object has been to communicate a knowledge of art as well with the pen as with the pencil, and has aimed rather to rank as an instructor than as a painter. In 1830 he went to Rome and Naples, and brought back his sketches on coloured paper. These had such an effect on the artists that this system of sketching has been generally adopted, and has led to very pleasing results. It may be added, that, sorely against the prejudices of the veterans in water-colours, Robson, Barrett, Dewint, &c., &c., Harding broke away from the ancient practice, and introduced the use of opaque colours among the transparent ones. How far this has contributed to the advance of the art may be understood from the works of Cattermole, Nash, Lewis, Hunt, and others.

HARDINGE, HENRY, VISCOUNT, a veteran British General, is the son of the Rev. Henry Hardinge, of Stanhope, and was born October 30, 1785. He was gazetted as an ensign as early as 1798, and steadily rose in rank. He served throughout the Peninsular war, nearly the whole time as deputy-quartermaster-general of the Portuguese *army, and was* present at the battles of Molera and Vimiera,

upon which latter occasion he was wounded; he was at the battle of Corunna, the passage of the Douro, the battle of Busaco, the lines of Torres Vedras, the battle of Albuera, the first and second sieges of Badajoz, the siege and capture of Ciudad Rodrigo, the third siege of Badajoz, the battles of Salamanca, Vittoria (where he was severely wounded), Pampeluna, the Pyrenees, Nivelle, Nive, and Orthes. He again served in the campaign of 1815, and was severely wounded at Ligny, 16th of June, and had his left hand amputated. Five years after the peace, Hardinge, who had been made a K.C.B. for his services, entered Parliament as member for Durham, in the Tory interest; and in 1823 was made Clerk of the Ordnance. During the Peninsular struggle and the Waterloo campaign, he had won the friendship and entire confidence of the great Captain of the age, and when, in 1828, the latter assumed the ministerial premiership, he called for the services of Hardinge as the representative of the war department in the Lower House. It is related that on the hesitation of Hardinge, and his objecting his inaptitude for parliamentary speaking, the great Duke assured him that he would find no difficulty, if he would but "take care not to speak of what he did not understand, and never to quote Latin." In 1830 he was appointed Secretary for Ireland, and held that office until the dissolution of the Wellington ministry. He was again appointed Irish Secretary in 1834, and a third time in 1841. In 1844 he left the House of Commons to become Governor-General of India, immediately before the outbreak of the first war of the Punjaub. He was on the field of battle from the beginning to the end of the contest, and greatly contributed by the powerful aid he rendered to Sir Hugh, now Lord Gough, to bring the contest to a successful issue. The treaty of Lahore, which he concluded, exhibits him in the light of a moderate and magnanimous conqueror. On its ratification he was created Viscount Hardinge of Lahore, and the East India Company granted him a pension of 5000*l.* per annum. Lord Hardinge is a Lieutenant-general and Colonel of the 57th Regiment of Foot. He also enjoys a pension of 300*l.* a-year, in consideration of the loss of his hand.

HARISPE, MARSHAL, a Soldier of the French Empire, recently raised to the highest military dignity to grace M.

Bonaparte's new system of government, is one of the oldest and most distinguished survivors of the Imperial armies. He is now in his eighty-third year. So far back as 1792 he held the rank of captain of a company of volunteers raised by himself in the Basque country, where he was born, and in the following year commanded a battalion of the same. He was during that year actively engaged in the affairs between the Spanish and French armies on the frontier, and having driven the Spanish from the Aldudes (which has been so long a disputed territory), and won the redoubts of Budaritz, he was, with the rapidity of promotion then not uncommon, raised to the rank of general of brigade—his brigade being composed of Basque Chasseurs. In 1800 he was attached to the division of General Moncey in Italy, and with whom he afterwards became allied by the closest ties of friendship. In 1802 he obtained the command of the 16th Light Infantry in the regular army. With that corps he made the campaign of Germany in 1806, and distinguished himself greatly at the battle of Jena. On this last occasion he was left on the field, and reported dead in the official reports of the army. In 1807 he was attached as brigadier-general to the army of the Duke of Montebello, and was again severely wounded at the battle of Friedland. On his recovery he was attached to the army of General Moncey, as chief of his staff. He greatly distinguished himself in all the affairs of Catalonia. In 1810 he received his commission as general of division, and in the following year commanded the assault of Tarragona, and was again wounded by a shell. In 1813 he received the title of Count, and was sent to Spain with Marshal Suchet. In 1814 he was with Marshal Soult, and shared in all the dangers of the retreat on Paris after the decisive actions in the Pyrenees, which led to the final evacuation of Spain by the French. He was present at the battle of Toulouse, when he was once more wounded in the foot by a cannon-ball, and taken prisoner by the English. In March 1815 he commanded the first military division of the army of the Basses Pyrenées. From the period of the Restoration till the Revolution of July he remained in private life, residing at his château of Bagorny in his native mountains; and from the latter period till February 1848 he almost always commanded the army of observation on the *Spanish frontier*, with Bayonne for his head-quarters. Dur-

ing the affairs between the English legion under Sir De Lacy Evans and the Carlist forces in the Basque provinces, in 1836–7, the conduct of General Harispe was most praiseworthy, and on the successful issue of the storming of the heights of San Sebastian he wrote a highly complimentary letter to the English general. In the taking of Irun and Fontarabia by the legion, in May 1837, he afforded every assistance to the English officers wounded on that occasion. General Harispe was in Madrid with the French army when the population rose on the 2d of May, 1808; and in the second edition of Napier's "History of the Peninsular War" will be found some marginal notes from him, correcting a few errors relative to that event in the work in question. General Harispe enjoyed much popularity, not only among the army he so long commanded near the French frontier, but also among his countrymen; and no pleasure was so great for him as that of wandering over his native mountains in his old age and conversing with the peasants. He carries his love for the scenes of his childhood and for the primitive habits of their inhabitants to an extreme; he loves to converse in the Basque tongue, which he speaks as well, perhaps better, than French; and his servants, instead of the ordinary livery, wear by preference the blue cap of the mountains. General, now Marshal Harispe, is still, notwithstanding his time of life, in all the vigour of a green old age.

HARVEY, T. K., Author and Critic, was born about 1814. Mr. Harvey, who is at present the editor of the "Athenæum," has been for many years a contributor to our current literature, both in prose and poetry. Many of his poems are found in choice collections of English verse.

HAWTHORN, NATHANIEL, an American Author, was born at Salem, Massachussets, about 1809. He was educated at Bowdoin College, and graduated there in 1825, where he had Longfellow for one of his classmates. In 1837 he published the first, and in 1842 the second volume, of his "Twice-told Tales," so named because they had already appeared in the periodicals. In 1845 he edited the "Journal of an African Cruiser," and in 1846 "Mosses from an Old Manse," a second collection of magazine papers. In the Introduction to the last work he has given some delightful glimpses of his

personal history. He had been several years in the Custom House at Boston while Mr. Bancroft was collector of customs, and afterwards joined that remarkable association the Brook Farm Community, at West Roxbury, where, with them, he appears to have become quite reconciled to the "old ways," as fully equal to the inventions of Fourier and Owen. In 1843 he went to reside in the pleasant village of Concord, in the Old Manse, till then never profaned by a lay occupant. Here, in the room previously occupied by Emerson, he wrote those delightful sketches which his countrymen have pronounced equal to anything which Irving has produced. In his house at Concord he passed three years, until at length his repose was invaded by that "spirit of improvement" which is constantly marring the happiness of quiet-loving people. and he was compelled to look out for another residence. "Now," he says, in the Introduction just mentioned, "came hints, growing more and more distinct, that the owner of the house was pining for his native air. Carpenters next appeared, making a tremendous racket amongst the out-buildings, strewing green grass with shavings and chips of chestnut joists, and vexing the whole antiquity of the place with their discordant renovations. Soon, moreover, they divested our abode of the veil of woodbines which had crept over a large portion of its southern face. All the aged mosses were cleared unsparingly away, and there were horrible whispers about brushing up the external walls with a coat of paint—a purpose as little to my taste as might be that of rougeing the venerable cheeks of one's grandmother. But the hand that renovates is always more sacrilegious than that which destroys. In fine, we gathered up our household goods, drank a farewell cup of tea in our little breakfast-room, and passed forth between the tall stone gate-posts as uncertain as wandering Arabs where we might next pitch our tents. Providence took me by the hand, and—an oddity of dispensation which I trust there is no irreverence in smiling at—has led me, as the newspapers announce while I am writing, from the Old Manse into a Custom House!" Mr. Hawthorn has lately published a novel, "The House with Seven Gables."

HAYTI, FAUSTIN-SOULOUQUE, EMPEROR OF, *is of the most* humble origin. He was born a slave on the

property of M. Viallet, who gave him his liberty. At the period of the evacuation of Hayti by the French, the emancipated slave entered as a soldier the army of General Dessalines. From step to step he rose to the rank of colonel, and he held that rank at the period of the fall of the President Boyer,—a grave event, in which the present emperor was not at all implicated. From his taciturnity—a quality which among the blacks is considered to denote the most approved wisdom and discretion—he was admitted into the secret of the several conspiracies which succeeded each other from 1843 to 1847. Having been created a general of division under Richer, he only owed his election as emperor to the accident of his name having been mentioned in the Senate at the moment when the votes were divided between two candidates, neither of whom had a sufficient majority. He then became the means of conciliation between the parties. The blacks voted for him on account of his ebony skin, the mulattos because they thought they had no reason to fear the ambition of one who had till then been quite unknown. But the latter were not long in discovering that they had given to themselves a master, and not a flexible instrument. Hence proceeded the sanguinary events of the month of April 1848. Soulouque triumphed in consequence of his displaying a terrible energy of character. His victory was disgraced by some frightful executions. Perfidious counsellors drove him into a course of vengeance, speaking of nothing less than exterminating the whole coloured race, who form the fifth of the population of Hayti. In this state of matters the Consul-general of France acquired for ever the gratitude of humanity. In the midst of the balls which whistled through the streets of Port-au-Prince he repaired to the chief of the State, and succeeded, after reiterated efforts, in obtaining from him an amnesty, which excluded only twelve persons, whose safety had been already secured. In departing with the good news, M. Raybaud said to Soulouque, "President, of all the persons here present I am the only one who does not depend on you, and my opinion should appear to you, at least, the most disinterested. Many of these persons (pointing to the instigators of the crime) excite your resentment as much as possible, and drive you to the most sanguinary measures, without in the least troubling themselves about the opinion that will be

entertained of you beyond this island." These last words made the greatest impression on the mind of Soulouque, and the hand of the conqueror, ready to strike the conquered, was arrested by this appeal to the tribunal of civilised nations. Soulouque for the next eighteen months was principally occupied in re-conquering the Spanish part of the island, erected into the Dominican Republic, when, to the surprise of the European press, he was proclaimed emperor. People have generally agreed in saying that he did not solicit this advancement; at any rate, he did not make himself a plagiarist of an idea which has always been attributed to another president. The name of emperor expresses nothing Napoleon-like at Hayti; it supposes only an authority better respected than that of president, and recalls to the Haytian the popular recollection of Dessalines, who, in reward of the services rendered to his country, had been proclaimed emperor. The following is the way in which the change in the form of government was brought about:—A certain number of military and civil citizens addressed, on the 20th of August, 1849, a petition to the Chamber of Representatives, demanding that the title of emperor should be conferred on his excellency the President Soulouque. General Vil Lubin, commandant of the garrison of Port-au-Prince, expressed the same wish, as well as the principal officers present in the capital. On the 25th the Chamber took cognizance of the petition, approved it, and transmitted it on the same day to the Senate, who gave it their sanction. Not a voice was raised in defence of the expiring republic. On the 26th the two great bodies of the State conveyed his promotion to Soulouque, accompanied with a crown and a cross, and expressing their devotion in the most monarchical terms. The *coup d'état*, if such it be, was accomplished with the legal forms, and met with no opposition anywhere. The constitution was immediately put into harmony with the new order of things. Such as it is at present, it guarantees the essential rights of citizens, and leaves, in appearance, little latitude to arbitrary proceedings. Unfortunately here, as elsewhere, practice continually contradicts theory. Entering completely into his imperial *rôle*, Faustin I. did not delay creating orders and titles of nobility. He is greatly honoured for this conception, *so favourably* received by the Haytians, who, amongst other

resemblances to their former rulers, have always been remarkably vain. There are at present two orders in the empire—the military order of St. Faustin, and the civil order of the Legion of Honour. The emperor proclaimed himself the grand master, and has made grand crosses, and commanders, and knights. The titles are those of princes, dukes, counts, barons, and knights. The princes and the dukes have been chosen amongst the generals of division and the vice-admirals; the counts amongst the generals of brigade and rear-admirals; the barons amongst the adjutant-generals, the colonels, and captains of the navy; the knights amongst the lieutenant-colonels and commanders of the navy. An assimilation of grades has been in some measure established between the civil and the military functionaries. The senators, the representatives, the judges, the superior officers of the customs, &c., are all barons. For the women, besides the feminine of the titles accorded to the men, there exists the special title of marchioness. The first ordonnance decrees the creation of four princes and fifty-seven dukes. The princes, named at the same time Marshals of the Empire, were the Generals Pierrot, Lazarre, Souffrand, and Bobo. They receive with the title of Most Serene Highness that of Lord. To the ducal quality is attached the title of his Grace, and the name of some locality. From this latter circumstance arise the denominations which have led astray the European and American journals. Thus, General Geffrard is Duke of the Table, General Luiding is Duke of Marmalade, General Segrettier Duke of Frose-Bonbon, General Alberti Duke of Lemonade, &c. But the Table, Marmalade, Frose-Bonbon, Lemonade, &c., are all places marked in the ancient geography of the country. King Christopher already made use of them for the same purpose as Soulouque, and wittily said, "The French, when they laugh at my Marmalade and Lemonade, forget that they have amongst themselves *des Paix* and *des Bouillon*." These two illustrious names are certainly lost in the darkness of times; but have we not seen in our own day M. Salvandy desirous of being called the Comte de Chante-Merle? The princes and the dukes are all grand crosses of the order of St. Faustin, and all have the grand cordon of the Legion of Honour. Another ordonnance produced at once ninety-one counts. They are all styled Excellence, and their titles, like those of the dukes,

are taken from different localities. Thus we have, amongst others, the Count de la Seringue, the Count des Guêpes, the Count de Diamant, the Count des Perches, the Count de la Bombarde, &c. All the counts are commanders of the order of St. Faustin, and officers of the Legion of Honour. More prodigal of his favours as he descends in the scale of aristocracy, the emperor has created an innumerable mass of barons and knights. Louis XIV., in the midst of his splendours, did not perhaps imagine as many honorary changes as the Emperor Faustin. Amongst his household figure a grand almoner, a grand master of the pantry, a grand marshal of the palace, a quartermaster, gentlemen of honour, governors of the royal palaces and castles, pages, masters of ceremonies, librarians, heralds-at-arms, &c. The Empress Adelina has likewise her household, which is composed of a grand almoner, two ladies of honour, two tire-women, fifty-six ladies of the palace, twenty-two ladies of the chapel (all duchesses, countesses, baronesses, ladies of knights, or marchionesses), chamberlains, grooms, pages, &c. The Imperial Princess, Madame Olivia Faustin, possesses an equally brilliant household. Her gouvernante is Madame le Chevalier de Bonheur. The costume of the nobility has been regulated with particular care. The princes, dukes, and counts, must wear white tunics, the barons red coats, and knights blue coats. They are, moreover, distinguished by the number of plumes in their hats. The princes have nine, the dukes seven, the counts five, the barons three, and the knights two. An ordonnance decrees in minute terms the etiquette of the court. The gentlemen must appear in uniform; the ladies in full dress. "The nobles guard their swords," the ordonnance says, "as their finest ornament." The *tabouret* is reserved for the princes and princesses, the dukes and duchesses; whilst folding chairs are allowed to counts and countesses, barons and baronesses, knights and their ladies. Soulouque is actively occupied in raising Hayti to the height of the ancient monarchies of Europe. Ideas of war engage him without intermission—a brave soldier, he is determined to efface the defeat of Azud, where a few hundred Dominicans, profiting by the inaction of the Haytian army, gained an easy victory. Two war-steamers have been ordered in Europe. The chances appeared very *bad for St. Domingo*, the population of which is only about

150,000, whilst that of Hayti is upwards of 600,000, until the unfortunate republic successfully appealed to the protection of France and England. The ordinary revenue of Hayti is valued at about 240,000*l.*; official situations are paid accordingly. The emperor receives about 3200*l.* a-year, the empress from 1000*l.* to 1200*l.*, the three ministers have each a little less than 120*l.* a-year as their salary. The French indemnity weighs heavily on the budget. The clergy costs very little; there are not more than forty-eight priests in the whole bounds of the empire. The Haytian territory is closed against all monastic orders. As for the authority of the ministers, it is to be wished that it were somewhat greater. They are men of acknowledged merit. M. Dufresne, Minister of Foreign Affairs, of the Interior, of War, and of Marine, would shine in the most civilized countries. He is a clear mulatto. M. Solomon, Minister of Finance and of Commerce, and M. Francisque, Minister of Justice and of Worship, are jet black. Faustin Soulouque is completely black, but his features have not by any means that savage and hideous form which ignorance attributed to the Negroes of purely African origin. On the contrary, his features are pleasing, and there is a peculiar sweetness in his smile. Though sixty-four years of age, he does not appear to be more than fifty. In height he is middle-sized. His breast is large and projecting, his shoulders broad, and his haunches clumsy, like those for which Louis XVIII. was peculiar. From the regularity of his features his profile looks like that of a Roman emperor. When standing, his corpulence makes him appear little. Though naturally taciturn, he is always dignified and choice in his words. He speaks French very correctly, and without any mixture of Creolisms. He has also been accused of not being able either to read or write. The truth is, that he signs his name legibly, and even in cases of necessity writes letters; and besides that he reads every evening, without the aid of a secretary, the new history of Hayti, which has just been published by M. Modion, a native of much merit, who has recently been created a baron. He is greatly annoyed at the caricatures of him published in the Paris "Charivari," and the jokes of the press in general. On this point he is susceptible to an incredible extent. A French writer, who lately visited the empire, says, "To resume my general impressions of Hayti,

I must say that I found the elements of civilization in a country which has been supposed to be completely plunged in barbarism. In all social relations I have only had to congratulate myself on the character of the inhabitants. The highways afforded a security which appears fabulous. In the towns I met all the charms of civilized life."

HERSCHEL, SIR JOHN FREDERICK WILLIAM, Astronomer, born in 1790, at Slough, near Windsor, is the only son of the great astronomer, Sir Frederick William Herschel. Having received a mathematical and scientific education at Cambridge, he devoted himself to the pursuits which had already made the name of Herschel illustrious. His earliest mathematical researches are contained in his reconstruction of Lacroix's treatise "On the Differential Calculus," undertaken in conjunction with Peacock. Sometimes alone, and sometimes in conjunction with South, he devoted a considerable portion of the year 1816 to observations on the double stars. As the first result of these observations, ten thousand in number, he presented to the Royal Society of London in 1823 a Catalogue of three hundred and eighty double and triple stars, whose positions and apparent distances had never until then been fixed. In 1827 he published a second Catalogue of two hundred and ninety-five stars of this kind; and in 1828 another, in which three hundred and twenty-four more were set down. In 1830 he published important measurements of twelve hundred and thirty-six stars, which he had made with his twenty-foot reflecting telescope. In the same year he published, in the "Transactions of the Astronomical Society," a paper, which contained the exact measurements of three hundred and sixty-four stars, and a great number of observations on the measurements of double stars. At the same time he was occupied with the investigation of a number of questions on physics, the results of which appear in his "Treatise on Sound," published in the "Encyclopædia Metropolitana;" a "Treatise on the Theory of Light;" a "Preliminary Discourse on the Study of Natural Philosophy," in Lardner's "Cyclopædia;" and his "Treatise on Astronomy," forming part of the same series. Herschel's last great enterprise is his sojourn of four years at the Cape of Good Hope, from *February 1834* to May 1838, where he examined, in the

exactest manner and under circumstances the most favourable, the whole southern celestial hemisphere. He suggested at the Cape the idea of making exact meteorological observations on given days, and simultaneously, at different places. The expedition to the Cape was undertaken at his own expense, and he declined to accept the indemnity afterwards offered to him by the Government. The lively interest which was felt in Herschel's expedition by the educated classes beyond the circle of astronomers, was manifested in the honours showered upon him on his return. A considerable number of the members of the Royal Society offered their suffrages for his election to the presidency of that body, vacant by the resignation of the Duke of Sussex—an honour, however, which he did not seek. At the commencement of her present Majesty's reign he was made a baronet. Sir John Herschel is distinguished as much for the excellence of his private character and the liberality of his disposition as by his high scientific abilities. His anxiety to diffuse the light of science among the population of England has been testified by as many evidences as his zeal to increase its intensity. In December, 1850, he was appointed Master of the Mint.

HESSE, FREDERICK-WILLIAM IV., ELECTOR OF, born at Hanau, August 20, 1802, is the son of the Elector Frederick-William III. and Auguste-Frederike-Christine, daughter of Frederick-William II. of Prussia. From his earliest years he was proud, idle, and vicious. His father placed him under the tutorship of the now well-known Baron Radowitz, then a captain in the Hessian service, and already distinguished by his mental attainments. The scenes of the court, then the most profligate in Germany, were not calculated to correct the tendencies of the young prince's nature. Breaches of the seventh commandment have been the rule in the electoral house since the days of Philip the Magnanimous, who had two wives; and a great proportion of the Hessian nobility owe their origin to the Oriental morals of the rulers of the land. The Haynaus and Hessensteins, sons of Frederick-William I., may be mentioned as instances. The Countess of Hessenstein, the last mistress of that elector, bore him twenty-three children. But the most scandalous of the immoralities of the family was that which led to the

early accession of the present elector to the throne. Frederick-William II. found a girl named Ortlepp, daughter of a mechanic at Berlin, and conferred on her the title of Countess Reichenbach. For a long period this woman reigned absolutely in Hesse, and had the impudence to demand, and the success to obtain, equal rank with the legitimate consort of the elector, the daughter of Frederick-William II. of Prussia. One day this woman received a letter of menacing character. She was transported with rage, and instantly demanded the discovery of the author. The most violent measures were at once applied to the whole land, and a commission of inquiry, invested with judicial powers, was instituted, and for years exercised a terrible severity; but which, after the imprisonment of numbers of all classes, was dissolved without having discovered the author of the missive. Under the influence of this woman the elector insulted, and even violently assaulted, his wife, who fled with her son to Bonn, where both lived for some time, occasionally visiting Fulda. The scandalous misrule of the elector at length provoked the people to resistance, and the States made so bold a stand, that he was glad to grant a liberal constitution; and, finding that little respect was paid to his government, resolved to associate his son, then the electoral prince, to his administration, as co-regent. At Fulda, the son had taken up with a woman named Lehmann, then the wife of a Prussian lieutenant, for whom she had already deserted one husband. Her transfer to the electoral prince was the subject of a transaction, and for a sum of money Lehmann relinquished his wife, who was straightway divorced, and took the name of Schaumbourg. The prince now married her, and created her Countess of Schaumbourg. The old elector, finding himself sinking daily more and more into contempt, resigned the government fully into the hands of his son, and retired to Frankfort, to spend his days about the gaming-tables of that city. The prince now removed to Cassel, soon followed by the woman Schaumbourg. His mother, shortly after taking up her residence at Cassel, refused to acknowledge this person as the wife of her son, and many most deplorable scenes ensued. Since his accession, his government has been one long quarrel with the representative institutions of his state. His chosen minister is the notorious M. Hassenpflug, a convicted forger. In October 1850, having car-

ried on a contest for absolute power, in which his conduct was condemned by the court as well as the parliament, he began to imprison and fine without the least regard to law or decency. The verdicts of the courts, and the awful attitude of a nation in legal opposition, so struck him, however, that in the night he fled to the frontier, and demanded the aid of the Diet to break down the barriers of the law behind which his people were. The Diet, which was never yet deaf to the prayer of distressed despotism, poured in Austrian and Bavarian troops, and acts of oppression, whose nature would compel incredibility, were they not attested by the most convincing proofs, were perpetrated. Every family was compelled to receive soldiers; in one case, thirty-two were quartered upon a judge who had decided against the legality of the elector's ukases. Men were plucked from the magistrate's chair, from the bench, and from the corporation, to be thrown into dungeons. The population was literally eaten up; so that when, in 1851, a demand was made for the reimbursement of the federal treasury, the elector found that he had only called in his friends to make it impossible for his subjects to furnish taxes for the government. At the close of last year (1851) there remained in prison the mayor of Hanau, M. Henkel, condemned to imprisonment for having peacefully and legally resisted the unconstitutional acts of M. Hassenpflug. The elector found a special pleasure in taking this gentleman under his charge, and superintending personally his treatment in prison. Henkel was sick, and was deprived of the advice of his physician; his wife and children were not to see him or send letters to him; he is a man of science, and therefore was deprived of all books, as well as pens and paper; a religious man, and so his Bible was taken away. Such is the government of this ruler, the favourite of the plenipotentiaries of Frankfort. He is especially fond of military spectacles, and delights in reviews and similar demonstrations of force; yet even in these matters he is grossly ignorant, as the following authentic anecdote may show. When Radetzky's famous quartermaster-general, Baron Hess, was introduced to the elector, he was asked if he had shared in the Italian campaign. The feldzeugmeister, who is chief of the general staff and of the emperor's military chancellery, having replied in the affirmative, the royal interlocutor then desired to know

whether he had "commanded a corps?" He has lately visited Vienna, in order to seek for his children by the woman Schaumbourg recognition as "*ebenburtig*" (of equal, that is, of royal birth on both sides). This would, on his decease or abdication, enable his eldest son to succeed him. It is understood that the Austrian government declined to interfere in so delicate a matter.

HOGAN, JOHN, Sculptor, born in the county of Waterford, in October 1800. Originally sent into a lawyer's office, he displayed tastes so opposite to those connected with writs and summonses, precedents and parchments, that his friends were induced to welcome his introduction to the office of an architect, where he remained for some years, mastering the details of that profession, but still displaying a strong taste for a still higher branch of art. Some carvings in wood, executed with much skill, proved beyond denial that nature had intended him for a sculptor—and when nineteen a sculptor he became. In 1823, through the liberality of some admirers, he was enabled to visit Rome for the purposes of study. His first works gave evidence of the powers within him, and amongst them one—Eve on her Expulsion from Paradise—he has never since surpassed. He is a Roman Catholic, and his friends keep him so occupied with busts and monuments, that he seems to have little time for the true works on which a sculptor of merit may best vindicate his genius.

HOGG, SIR JAMES WEIR, Deputy-Chairman of the East India Company, is the son of W. Hogg, Esq., of Dunmore, county Antrim. He was educated for the bar, and shortly after his call proceeded to Calcutta, practised with great success, and latterly filled the very lucrative office of Registrar of the Supreme Court there. He returned to England with an ample fortune, and in 1839 was elected a Director of the East India Company. In 1846 he was made Chairman of the Board of Directors, and as such was the constituted representative of the Company in the House of Commons. He sits for Honiton. In politics Sir James is a Free-trade Conservative.

HOLLAND, WILLIAM III., KING OF, eldest son of

William II., was born February 19, 1817. In 1839 he married the Princess Sophia-Frederica-Matilda. In March 1849, while paying a visit to Queen Victoria, he was informed of the death of his royal parent, and hastened home to receive the hereditary crown. In a proclamation issued on the 21st of March, immediately after his landing, he thus expressed his ideas of his duties:—"William I. accepted the sovereign power, which was to be carried out according to a constitution. William II., in concert with the national representation, modified the fundamental law according to the requirements of the times. It is my mission, in the same spirit, to give the fundamental law its full force. Men of the Netherlands, remain faithful to the motto of your ancestors, 'Union is strength,' and strive with me for liberty, by submission to the laws."

HORNE, RICHARD HENRY, Poet and Critic, was educated at Sandhurst College, in expectation of a military appointment in the East India Company's Service. Upon leaving college, having been disappointed in this hope, he entered the Mexican navy as midshipman. Mexico was then at war with Spain, and Horne was engaged in active service until the restoration of peace. He then returned to England through the United States. Arrived in his native country he devoted himself to literature, and has published "The Death of Marlowe," "Cosmo de Medecis," "The Death Fetch," "Gregory VII.," and "Orion," in poetry, besides a volume of ballad romances. His prose writings are very numerous, the larger portion being lost in the general periodical literature of the day. Among his complete works are "An Exposition of the False Medium between Men of Letters and the Public," and the "New Spirit of the Age." For some time he was editor of "The Monthly Repository." He has also been a large contributor to the "Church of England" and the "New Quarterly Review." His last production in poetry is "Judas Iscariot," a miracle play, in which he adopts an idea derived from the older theologians, that the traitor in delivering up the Saviour to the chief priests was only anxious to hasten on the triumphant vindication of his Master. His "Orion" was published for the remarkable sum of one farthing, a price placed on it as a sarcasm upon the low estimation into which epic poetry had

fallen. A satirical poet has alluded to this circumstance in the lines,—

> "When epics, four a-penny at the shops,
> Brought down the price of taws and lollypops."

HOWITT, WILLIAM, a popular Poet and descriptive Writer, was born in 1795, at Heanor, in Derbyshire. His parents belonging to the Society of Friends, he was educated at various schools peculiar to that body, and at the age of thirteen manifested his predilection for poetry by contributing some verses on Spring, to a periodical called "Literary Recreations." After leaving school he studied chemistry, botany, natural and moral philosophy, and the works of the best authors of England, Italy, and France. In his twenty-eighth year he married Mary Botham, of Uttoxeter, in Staffordshire, also a member of the Society of Friends, and now familiar to the public as Mary Howitt. On their marriage the Howitts went to reside in Staffordshire, where they continued for about a year. In 1823 they published a volume of poems, entitled "The Forest Minstrel," with their joint names on the title-page. It was well received. They soon after undertook a pedestrian tour in Scotland, walking more than five hundred miles over mountain and moorland, Mrs. Howitt performing the journey without fatigue. After their return to England they settled at Nottingham, where Mr. Howitt was for several years in business as a chemist and druggist. Here they published another joint volume of poems, called "The Desolation of Eyam," which made their names still more favourably known than their former work. They now began to write for the Annuals and Magazines. In 1831 he published "The Book of the Seasons; or, the Calendar of Nature." Mr. Horne, in his "New Spirit of the Age," says that this book was offered to six of the principal publishers, and rejected by them, till the author, in disgust, told the man in whose hands it was left to tie a stone to the manuscript and fling it over London Bridge. At length Colburn and Bentley took it. The press approvingly saluted its appearance, and it has since gone through seven editions. Mr. Howitt's next work was "A History of Priestcraft," the earnest severity of which alarmed some of his literary admirers, but gained him warm friends *and favour with* the people. Shortly after its publication he

was chosen an alderman of Nottingham, but he was not long in retiring from business, and removed to Esher, in Surrey, where he resided for three years. On leaving Nottingham he received from his fellow-townsmen a silver inkstand, presented as a mark of their esteem. In 1835 Mr. Howitt published his "Pantika," a work now little known, consisting of tales professedly taken from the chronicles of "Pantika," some account of whom is prefixed to them as an introduction. While living at Esher he published his "Rural Life of England," in two volumes, a popular work, descriptive of the customs and manners, the sports and pastimes, the labours and enjoyments, of the country people. In 1838 appeared his "Colonization and Christianity." He subsequently published "The Boy's Country Book," and "Visits to Remarkable Places, Old Halls, Battle-fields, and scenes illustrative of striking passages in English History and Poetry." Though an expensive work, it had a large sale, and a second series was soon added. Mr. and Mrs. Howitt afterwards went to reside in Germany, for the education of their children, and took up their head-quarters at Heidelberg, whence at different times they visited nearly every part and every large city of Germany. The result of Mr. Howitt's study of the German language was the translation of a work written expressly for him, entitled "The Student Life of Germany," containing about forty of the most famous songs of the German students. After three years' residence in that country, he published his "Social and Rural Life of Germany," and upon its favourable reception issued his "German Experiences." In 1847 he brought out a volume called "The Homes and Haunts of the most Eminent English Poets." In April 1846, Mr. Howitt became a partner in the proprietorship and management of "The People's Journal," established at the beginning of the same year by Mr. Saunders. Disagreements, which it is unnecessary to revive, led to the dissolution of this connexion at the close of the year; and in January 1847, was published the first number of "Howitt's Journal." This work being unsuccessful, brought Mr. Howitt into serious pecuniary difficulties in 1848, and he has since eschewed speculations in periodicals. Mrs. Howitt's last work was a translation entitled "Jacob Bendixen."

HUGO, VICTOR, a Politician, one of the most eminent of living French writers, was born 26th February, 1802. The political contrariety which has marked his career may be said to have been inherited by Hugo, his father having been one of the first volunteers of the Republic, and his mother, like Madame de la Rochejaquelin, a Vendéan by birth and sentiment, a proscribed Royalist, wandering while yet a girl in the Bocage of La Vendée. At the date of his birth his father was a colonel in the army of Napoleon, then advancing conquering and to conquer; and the child, born almost amid the roar of cannon, followed with its mother the steps of Bonaparte. From Besançon he was carried to Elba, from Elba to Paris, from Paris to Rome, from Rome to Naples, before he was five years of age, so that he exclaims, "I made the tour of Europe before I began to live." In Naples he resided about ten years, his father having been appointed governor of Avellino. In 1809 he returned to France with his two brothers and his mother, by whom he was educated within the walls of the convent of the Feuillantes, where the family had taken up its residence. He here received the benefit of classical instruction from an old general, whom his mother was then concealing from the Imperial police. At the close of 1811, his father, then a general and major-domo of Joseph Bonaparte's palace at Madrid, sent for his family to join him in that capital, and Victor accompanied his mother to Spain. He remained at Madrid about a year, and returned to the old convent until the restoration of 1814. This event, by exciting in his mother and father the opposite feelings of joy and indignant grief, led to their separation. Victor was placed by his father in a private academy, where he studied mathematics, it is said with great success, previous to his intended removal to the Polytechnic school. In 1816 he published his parable of "The Rich and Poor," and an elegy called the "Canadian." In 1817 he was a competitor for a prize on the "Advantages of Study," offered by the Academy; his production was honourably mentioned, and, it is said, would have received the prize, but that he intimated at the close of his lines that the writer was but fifteen years of age. As the serious, melancholy tone of the poem seemed to betoken a much older author, the Academy fancied he was trifling with them, and refused the reward. *In 1819, having* committed himself to a literary career with

his father's consent, he wrote two odes, entitled "The Virgins of Verdun," and "The Restoration of the Statue of Henri IV.," and sent them to the Academy of Floral Fêtes, at Toulouse, by which they were both crowned. In 1820 he published his "Infant Moses in the Nile." In 1822 appeared the first volume of his "Odes and Ballads," a collection of occasional pieces, all breathing a Royalist spirit. His "Hans of Iceland," and "Bug-Jargal," though not published until some years later, were written about this time. Before the close of the same year the young poet married Mdlle. Foucher, and rising into distinction as a Royalist writer, he received a pension from Louis XVIII. In 1826 he published a second volume of "Odes and Ballads," which betrayed an inward revolution in his political and literary opinions. In the succeeding year he composed a drama called "Cromwell," intended to assert the freedom of the Christian and Romantic drama, against the theory of Aristotle's unity as understood and practised by Racine. He prefaced it with a dramatic theory of his own, to which, however, he hardly gave a fair chance of success, since its accompanying illustration contained scarcely a feature of merit. In 1828 he published his "Orientals," a poem of finished versification, but destitute of force or spirit. In 1809, Victor Hugo published his "Last Days of a Condemned Prisoner," and so vividly depicted the anticipated tortures of a man left for execution, that the terrific interest of the work gave it an immense success. Hugo now prepared to make a second attack on the stiff and unnatural dramatic system prevalent in his country. On the 26th February, 1830, his "Ernani" was played at the Théâtre Français. The indignation of the old, and the enthusiasm of the new party knew no bounds. The first performance of "Ernani" was a scene of riotous confusion, and pugilistic encounters filled up the intervals between the acts. The Academy went so far as to lay a complaint against the innovation at the foot of the throne, but Charles X., with a good sense which had been very serviceable to him four months later, replied, that "in matters of art he was no more than a private person." Meanwhile the drama, which was far superior in construction to "Cromwell," succeeded. Shortly after the revolution of July his "Marion De Lorme," embodying his new political tastes, and which had been suppressed by the censorship under the Restora-

ation, was brought out, and was considered theatrically successful. In January 1832, his play, "Le Roi s'amuse," was performed at the Théâtre Français, and the next day interdicted by the government. This was scarcely necessary, the piece had not been warmly received: in fact, people, however willing to be amused, especially at the expense of monarchs, did not like to see the quondam Royalist employed in burlesquing the historical heroes of their country. M. Hugo afterwards published a number of dramatic pieces of various merit; among them are "Lucrèce Borgia," "Marie Tudor," "Angelo," and "Ruy Blas." His greatest novel is "Notre Dame de Paris." He has since produced "Chants du Crépuscle," and "Voix Intérieures." In the works of this poet may be found some of the sublimest creations of French poetry. It is to be regretted, that, side by side with these, the author's perverted taste led him to place images the most monstrous and disgusting. He was created a peer of France by Louis Philippe, and, on the downfall of that monarch, avowing the principles of the Revolution, was returned to the Constituent, and afterwards to the National Assembly, of which he was one of the few eloquent speakers. He is also a leading member of the Peace Congress, and was its President in 1849—a position remarkable enough for the author of the bellicose "Lettres du Rhin." He was an energetic opponent of Louis Napoleon in December, and on that account was compelled to fly to Brussels in an assumed name.

HUMBOLDT, FREDERICK-HENRY-ALEXANDER, BARON, the greatest Naturalist that has appeared since Aristotle, was born in Berlin, September 14, 1769, and is thus in the eighty-third year of his age. He was educated with a view to employment in the direction of the government mines successively at Göttingen, Frankfort on the Oder, at Hamburg, and at the Mining School of Frieberg. In 1792 he was appointed assessor to the Mining Board, a post which he shortly exchanged for that of a director of the works at Baireuth. In 1795 he relinquished these duties in order to connect himself to those pursuits of investigation and discovery in which he has won an undying name. From the earliest period he had evinced a faculty of physical inquiry, *which he had* assiduously cultivated by the study of che-

mistry, botany, geology, and galvanism; the latter then a new and incipient science. He now proceeded to condense and arrange his scientific ideas, and test them by the known before applying them in countries yet unexplored. His next care was to look round for a country whose ill-known natural riches might open to the industrious inquirer a prospect of numerous and valuable discoveries. Meanwhile he made a journey with Hatler to North Italy to study the volcanic theory of rocks in the mountains of that district, and in 1797 started for Naples with a similar purpose with Bach. Compelled to surrender this plan by the events of war, he turned his steps to Paris, met with a most friendly reception from the *savans* of that capital, and made the acquaintance of Bonpland, just appointed naturalist to Baudin's expedition. Humboldt had only time to arrange to accompany his new-made friend when the war compelled the postponement of the entire project. Upon this he resolved to travel in North Africa, and with Bonpland had reached Marseilles for embarkation, when the events of the times again thwarted his intentions. The travellers now turned into Spain, where Humboldt, whose great merits were made known by Baron von Forell, the Saxon minister, was encouraged by the government to undertake the exploration of Spanish America, and received promises of assistance in his investigations. On the 4th of June, 1799, Humboldt and Bonpland sailed from Corunna, and happily escaped the English cruisers; and on the 19th landed in the haven of Santa Cruz, Teneriffe. They ascended the Peak, and in the course of the few days of their stay collected a number of new observations in the natural history of the island. They then crossed the ocean without accident, and landed on American ground, near Cumana, on the 16th of July. They employed eighteen months in examining the territory which now forms the free state of Venezuela; reached Caraccas on February 1800, and left the sea-coast anew near Puerto Cabella, in order to reach the Orinoco by crossing the grassy steppes of Calobozo. They embarked on the Orinoco in canoes and proceeded to the extreme Spanish post, Fort San Carlos, on the Rio-Negro, two degrees from the equator, and returned to Cumana, after having travelled thousands of miles through an uninhabited wilderness. They left the continent for the Havannah and stayed there for some months, until, re-

ceiving a false report that Baudin was awaiting them, according to appointment, on the coast of South America, they sailed from Cuba in March 1801 for Carthagena, in order to proceed thence to Panama. The season being unfavourable to a farther advance, they settled for a time at Bogota; but in September 1801 set out for the south, despite of the rains, crossed the Cordillerâ di Quindin, followed the Valley of Cauca, and by the greatest exertions reached Quito, January 6, 1802. Eight months were spent in exploring the valley of Quito and the volcanic mountains which enclose it. Favoured by circumstances, they ascended several of these, reaching heights previously unattained. On the 23d June, 1802, they climbed Chimborazo, and reached a height of 19,300 feet,—a point of the earth higher than any which had hitherto been ascended. Humboldt next travelled over Loxa, Jaen de Bracomoros, Caxamarca, and the high chain of the Andes, and reached, near Truxillo, the shore of the Pacific. Passing thence through the desert of Lower Peru, he came to Lima. In January 1803 he sailed for Mexico, visited its chief cities, collecting facts, and departed for Valladolid, traversed the province of Mechracan, and reaching the Pacific coast near Jorullo, returned to Mexico. Here he stayed some months, gaining large accessions to his stores of knowledge by intercourse with the observant portion of the educated classes of that country. In January 1804 he embarked for the Havannah, from Vera Cruz, remained there a short time, paid a visit of two months to Philadelphia, and finally returned to Europe, landing at Havre in August 1804, richer in collections of objects, but especially in observations on the great field of the natural sciences, in botany, zoology, geology, geography, statistics, and ethnography, than any preceding traveller. Paris at that time offering a greater assemblage of scientific aids than any capital of the Continent, he took up his residence there, in order to prepare the results of his researches for the public eye. He shortly commenced a series of gigantic publications in almost every department of science; and in 1817, after twelve years of incessant toil, four-fifths had been printed in parts, each of which cost in the market more than 100*l.* sterling. Since that time the publication has gone on *more* slowly, and is still incomplete. Having visited Italy in *1818 with Gay-Lussac*, and afterwards travelled in England

in 1826, he returned, took up his residence in Berlin, and enjoying the personal favour and most intimate society of the sovereign, was made a Councillor of State, and intrusted with more than one diplomatic mission. In 1829, at the particular desire of the Czar, he visited Siberia and the Caspian Sea in company with Gustav Rose and Ehrenberg. The travellers accomplished a distance of 2142 geographical miles, journeying on the Wolga from Novorogod to Casan, and by land to Catharineberg, Tobolsk, Barnaul, Schlangenberg, and Zyrianski on the south-west slope of the Altai, by Buchtarminsk to the Chinese frontier. On their return, they took the route by Ust-Kamonogorsk, Orusk, the Southern Ural, Orenberg, Sarepta, Astrachan, Moskow, and Petersburg. Taken singly, there is not one of Humboldt's achievements which has not been surpassed, but taken together they constitute a body of services rendered to science such as is without parallel. The activity of naturalists is commonly directed either to accumulate rich materials in observations or to combine such observations in a systematic manner, so as to derive from their diversity one rational whole; Humboldt has done both so well that his performances in either department would entitle him to admiration. With a mind in which was treasured up every observation or conjecture of preceding philosophers, not excepting those of antiquity, he set out measuring the heights of mountains, noting temperature, collecting plants, dissecting animals, and everywhere pressing forward to penetrate the meaning of the relations which he found to subsist between the different portions of the organic kingdom and man. This latter new and practical aspect of the natural sciences was first presented by Humboldt, and gives to such studies an interest for thousands who have no taste for the mere enumeration of rocks, plants, and animals. The sciences which deal with the laws governing the geographical distribution of plants, animals, and men, had their origin in the observations and generalisations of Humboldt, who may be justly regarded as the founder of the new school of physical inquiry. In addition to the general and ultimate gain to humanity of such an advance in science as Humboldt has effected, is to be reckoned the immediate partial benefit of his observations, according to which charts have been constructed, agriculture extended, and territories peopled.

Humboldt is most popularly known by his "Cosmos," a work written in the evening of his life, in which he contemplates all created things as linked together and forming one whole, animated by internal forces, and rears a monument at which succeeding generations will gaze in astonishment.

HUME, JOSEPH, a Radical Reformer, whose history adds another memorable example of perseverance raising its possessor from a humble station to distinction. He was born at Montrose, in the year 1777. While he was still young, his father, the master of a small trading-vessel of that port, died, leaving his widow to bring up a numerous family. Mrs. Hume, it is related, maintained herself and her children by means of a small earthenware business, and placed Joseph in a school of the town, where he received an education which included instruction in the elements of Latin. With such scanty stores of knowledge he was apprenticed to a surgeon of Montrose, with whom he served three years. Having attended the prescribed lectures to the medical classes in the University of Edinburgh, he was admitted, in 1796, a member of the College of Surgeons in that city. India was at that time a favourite, and, indeed, almost the only field for the young who had no other fortune than their talents and enterprise. To India, accordingly, Mr. Hume went, and entered as a surgeon the naval service of the East India Company. He had not been there three years before he was placed on the medical establishment of Bengal. Here, while increasing his professional reputation, he had the opportunity of watching the whole operation of the machinery of the Company's service. His quick eye soon detected the deficiencies of the greater number of the Company's servants in command of the native language, an acquirement so valuable in possessions such as ours. He determined to acquire a knowledge of the dialects of India, not doubting that a sphere of larger utility and greater emolument would open before his efforts. The Mahratta war breaking out in 1803, Mr. Hume was attached to Major-general Powell's division, and accompanied it on its march from Allahabad into Bundelcund. The want of interpreters was now felt, as Hume had expected, and the commander was glad to find *among his surgeons* a man capable of supplying the defi-

ciency. He continued to discharge his new duties without resigning his medical appointment, and managed to combine with both the offices of paymaster and postmaster of the troops. His ability to hold direct intercourse with the natives continued to be of immense service to him, and enabled him to hold simultaneously a number of offices with most varied duties, such as nothing but an unwearying frame and an extraordinary capacity could have enabled any one person to discharge. At the conclusion of the peace he returned to the Presidency, richer by many golden speculations, for which a period of war never fails to offer opportunities. In 1808, having accomplished the object for which he left his native land, he came to England, and, after an interval of repose, determined upon making a tour of the country, the better to acquaint himself with the condition of its inhabitants. He accordingly visited, in 1809, nearly every populous town in the United Kingdom, acquiring facts for future use. The two following years were spent in making similar observations in Spain, Portugal, Turkey, Greece, Egypt, the Ionian Isles, Sicily, Malta, Sardinia, &c. On his return to England he became a candidate for the representation of Weymouth, and sat in Parliament for that borough during the session of 1812. His great industry, extensive experience, and ample information, were soon made manifest in this new sphere. Fresh from India, and accustomed to regard the existing Tory administration as the perfection of government, he gave it his strenuous support. This course being displeasing to his constituents, he was not re-elected at the close of his brief parliamentary career, which arrived with the autumn of 1812. He now devoted his abilities to the promotion of education by Lancasterian schools, and to the duties of a director of the East India Company, which he assumed in 1813. In 1818 he again entered Parliament, as member for the district of his native burgh, Montrose, for which he continued to sit until 1830. In this year he succeeded Mr. Whitbread as member for Middlesex. In 1837 he was returned for Kilkenny. At the general election of 1841 he was left without a seat; but in 1842 he was again elected for Montrose, which he still represents. His parliamentary career since 1818 has been that of a consistent reformer of abuses, an enemy of monopoly, and a friend to the extension of political franchises. As a financial reformer he

has no equal in the house. His persistence and imperturbability have long since become proverbial. It is owing to his exertions that the public accounts are now presented in an intelligible form, and that the ruinous sinking-fund system has been abandoned. The opponents of Mr. Hume used to take pleasure in twitting him with his transactions in regard to the Greek loan, and with a declaration made in the House of Commons in 1832, that "he would vote black to be white rather than risk the existence of the (Grey) ministry." But the service Mr. Hume is believed to have done the country is a sufficient answer to general and unsupported insinuations or reproaches.

HUNT, FREDERICK KNIGHT, Journalist, Editor of the "Daily News," born in Buckinghamshire in 1814. In a volume which enumerates the journalists of London, the name of the editor of the "Daily News" must have a place. Mr. Hunt was a member of the editorial staff selected for the "Daily News" when Mr. Charles Dickens established that journal in 1846, and in 1851 became the chief editor of the paper. He had been a writer for the press, and a newspaper editor, for several years before his connexion with the journal he now conducts. He is the author, amongst other things, of "The Fourth Estate: or, Contributions to the History of Newspapers, and of the Liberty of The Press," 2 vols. 1850.

HUNT, LEIGH, a Journalist and Poet, is the son of a clergyman of the Church of England, and was born at Southgate, in Middlesex, October 19, 1784. His father, the Rev. Isaac Hunt, was a West Indian; but being in Pennsylvania at the time of the war with the mother-country, he manifested his loyalty to the crown so warmly that he was forced to fly to England as a refuge. Having taken orders he was for some time tutor to Mr. Leigh, the nephew of Lord Chandos, near Southgate; and his son, the subject of this sketch, was named after his pupil. Like Coleridge and Lamb, Leigh Hunt received his education at Christ's Hospital, where he continued until his fifteenth year. "I was then," he says, "first deputy-Grecian, and had the honour of going out of school at the same age, and for the same reason, as my *friend Charles* Lamb. The reason was, that I hesitated in

my speech. It was understood that a Grecian was bound to deliver a public speech before he left school, and to go into the Church afterwards; and as I could do neither of these things, a Grecian I could not be." Whilst at school he showed his talent for poetry by some clever contributions to "The Juvenile Preceptor;" the chief part of these he collected and published under the title "Juvenilia," in 1801, being then under articles of clerkship to an attorney. He subsequently relinquished this connexion with the law to accept an appointment. In 1805, Mr. Hunt's brother John set up a paper called the "News;" and Leigh, giving up his official employment, went to live with him, and assist in its production. As a critic and scholar he had at this time few equals, and perhaps no superior in the press; and bringing to his newspaper duties a loftier idea of the vocation of a journalist than was then generally entertained, he succeeded in giving to the paper to which he contributed a character which honourably distinguished it above its rivals. His contributions to the "News" consisted chiefly of dramatic and literary criticisms, which, being written with an independence and spirit then too rare in writers for the press, were greatly admired. In 1808 he established the "Examiner" newspaper, still in conjunction with his brother. He was still more literary than political in his tastes and lucubrations, but unfortunately ventured an observation in 1810, in the "Examiner," which drew upon him the attentions of the Attorney-general. The following is the paragraph which was then thought worthy a government prosecution: "What a crowd of blessings rush upon one's mind that might be bestowed upon the country in the event of a total change of system! Of all monarchs, indeed, since the Revolution, the successor of George III. will have the finest opportunity of becoming nobly popular." Informations were now filed against Mr. Hunt and his brother, and also against Mr. Perry, of the "Morning Chronicle," who had reprinted the obnoxious remarks. The case of the "Morning Chronicle" was tried first; Mr. Perry defended himself with spirit, justifying the passage, and was acquitted, upon which the information against the "Examiner" was withdrawn. Another opportunity soon presented itself to the officers of the Crown. Some remarks, by no means of a personal character, directed against the practice of military flogging, became the subject

of a second prosecution, and the trial came on before Lord Ellenborough, 22d February, 1811. Mr. Brougham, then a rising advocate in the English courts, was engaged for the defence; and having cited the opinions of Abercromby and other illustrious generals in condemnation of the use of the lash, declared that the real question with the jury was, whether on the most important subjects an Englishman had the privilege of expressing himself according to his feelings and opinions—a question which the jury answered in the affirmative by a verdict of Not guilty. But this was not to be the last of Hunt's appearances in the law courts. The "Morning Post" having in the practice of its usual fulsome adulation called the Prince Regent an Adonis, Leigh Hunt added—"of fifty." The Prince's vanity triumphed over his discretion, and upon so slight a ground was a prosecution instituted. The jury upon this occasion found a verdict of Guilty against Leigh Hunt and his brother John; and each was sentenced to pay a fine of 500*l.* (which, with the costs, made the total penalty 2000*l.*) and to suffer two years in Horsemonger Lane Gaol. Offers not to press both penalties were made on condition that no similar attacks should appear, but they were with constancy rejected. Mr. Hunt has since described the manner in which he adapted the cell allotted to him to the tastes of a poet. He papered the walls with a trellis of roses, coloured the ceiling with clouds and sky, screened the barred windows with Venetian blinds, and having set up his bookshelves, and introduced a piano, declared there was not a handsomer room on that side the water. Upon their liberation the Hunts continued to write as before, and maintained the "Examiner" at the head of the weekly metropolitan press, until in course of time he surrendered it to a management. On leaving prison he published his "Story of Rimini," an Italian tale in verse, containing some exquisite lines; and discovering a charming play of fancy; he also set up a small weekly literary paper in the manner of the periodical essayists of Queen Anne's Reign, which, like his "Companion," was well received, but not to a sufficient extent to ensure its permanence. In 1810 he also commenced a quarterly magazine, called "The Reflector," but it was not more successful than the "Liberal," which he subsequently published in connexion with *Shelley and Byron*. Mr. Hunt's chief fame has been won

as an essayist; his performances in this character are to be found in a collection called the "Round Table," written in conjunction with Hazlitt, as well as in his "Indicator and Companion," and in "Critical Essays on the Performers at the London Theatres." In 1822, Mr. Hunt went to Italy to reside with Lord Byron, but the association was not productive of happiness; and the disappointment of the untitled poet was afterwards freely expressed, much to the chagrin of Byron's admirers, in a work called "Lord Byron and some of his Contemporaries." Among the works of Leigh Hunt not mentioned above are to be included "Classic Tales," "Feast of the Poets," "The Descent of Liberty, a Mask," "Foliage," "A Translation of Tasso's Arminta," "The Literary Pocket-Book," "The Legend of Florence," a drama, and "Palfrey," a poem. Besides these original works must be mentioned "A Jar of Honey from Mount Hybla," "Imagination and Fancy," "Wit and Humour," &c., volumes in which the choicest flowers of genius are brought together, while the taste of their gatherer is genially employed to unfold their hidden beauties. These latter volumes are substitutes for the hortus-siccus kind of compilations long known as "Elegant Extracts."

HUNT, ROBERT, Author, born in Cornwall about 1814. Mr. Robert Hunt is a self-elevated man of talent. He is now the Keeper of Mining Records at the Museum of Economic Geology, at which institution he is also one of the lecturers—one of the "working men of practical science." Popularly, he is best known by his volumes, "The Poetry of Science," and "Panthea, or the Spirit of Nature."

I.

INGLIS, SIR ROBERT HARRY, Bart., a consistent politician of the old Tory school, and member of Parliament for the University of Oxford, was born January 12th, 1786, the son of Sir Hugh Inglis, thrice chairman of the East India Company, and a director of its affairs during nearly thirty years of war. His son was educated for the bar, to which he was called in 1808 by the Society of Lincoln's Inn.

He entered Parliament in 1824 for Dundalk, and sat in 1826 for Ripon. In 1829 the late Sir Robert Peel, having resolved to advocate the Catholic claims, which he had been returned by the University of Oxford to resist, felt bound to take the sense of his constituents on the question. Sir R. Inglis opposed, and at the poll defeated him by a large majority. Sir Robert strenuously opposed the introduction and passing of the Catholic Emancipation and Reform Bills, as he now opposes the admision of Jews to Parliament. As was to be expected of a man of cultivated mind and liberal disposition, he has always based his opposition to changes upon anxiety lest the present liberties of his country should be restricted or endangered. He is a member of several learned societies, and has passed the President's chair of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

IRVING, WASHINGTON, one of the most graceful Writers that America has hitherto produced, was born in New York, April 3d, 1783. His father, a respectable merchant, originally from Scotland, died while Washington was yet young, and the education of the latter was superintended by his elder brothers, three of whom had, without relinquishing active professional pursuits, gained considerable reputation for literary abilities. As his health did not permit any close application to business or study, he rambled about the picturesque island of Manhattan, gathering up those traditions and receiving those impressions which Mr. Seth Handaside's erudite and conscientious lodger has made immortal. Mr. Irving's first essays in literature were made in the New York "Morning Chronicle," in which he published his "Letters of Jonathan Oldstyle, Gent." The letters were concluded in 1802; and as symptoms of pulmonary disease now betrayed themselves, it was resolved that in the following year he should visit the south of Europe. He accordingly proceeded to the Mediterranean, and was landed on the coast of Sicily, whence he proceeded by way of Palermo and Naples to Rome, and through France to England. His journal of this tour, as yet unpublished, has been declared by some of his private friends to be one of the most entertaining of his works. In 1806 he returned to America, and joined Mr. *Paulding in* writing "Salmagundi." The sensation produced *by this whimsical* miscellany is described by the "old inha-

bitants" as exceeding anything of the kind ever known in New York. Its amusing ridicule of the ignorance of the British tourists who at that time pretended to describe the American character and national institutions, captivated the town. The establishment of the New York Historical Society, with the notification that one of its members contemplated the preparation from its collections of a history of the colony in its early days, suggested his "History of New York by Diedrich Knickerbocker," a most original and humorous work. Public curiosity was excited, just before its appearance, by paragraphs in the gazettes. When it appeared, it was bought as a veracious chronicle. In his character of a descendant of one of the original settlers of Niew Nederlandts, the author held so gravely and naturally the prejudices which such persons might be supposed to inherit, that many read whole chapters before they were undeceived by its wit and drollery. Some of the Dutch were far from relishing the liberty taken with their manners; and the learned and excellent Verplanck, in his discourse before the Historical Society, could not forbear animadverting, as he said, "more in sorrow than anger," upon Irving's choice of a theme. The author, who at this time had no thoughts of adopting the literary profession, was for several years engaged in business as a partner with his brothers in their extensive European trade, and wrote little, if anything, beyond the naval biographies in the "Analectic Magazine." When the war broke out, he was for a time aide-de-camp to Governor Tompkins. The peace put an end to the military life of Colonel Irving, and he set out for England to conduct the business of the firm at Liverpool. Buoyant with hope, with "enough of the world's gear" for all his wants, he had a prospect of returning home in a couple of years with a mind stored with pleasing recollections; but he had hardly landed in England before a reverse of fortune cast down his spirit and changed the whole tenor of his life. In the disastrous revulsion which followed the peace, the house of Irving, Brothers, was swept away. He now resorted to literature for support and solace; and the fruit of his devotion was the "Sketch-Book," which was published in New York and London in 1819 and 1820. No book of unconnected tales and essays had ever been so well received. It was speedily followed by "Bracebridge Hall" and "Tales of a Traveller."

In 1828 appeared the "Life and Voyages of Columbus." In 1829 the "Conquest of Granada" was given to the world. In 1831 the "Voyages of the Companions of Columbus" was published, and a year later the "Alhambra" saw the light. In 1832, after an absence of seventeen years, Mr. Irving returned to the United States. His reception at New York was one of the fairest examples that has been accorded to literary merit in this age. After passing a few weeks in the city, Mr. Irving set out upon a tour through the country, and undertook that journey of adventure which he describes so delightfully in "The Prairies." In 1833 he returned to the Atlantic States, and gave himself up to the society of the troops of friends who loved his character and admired his genius, residing in the old mansion of the Van Tassels on the Hudson. In 1835 his "Prairies," and "Legends of the Conquest of Spain," appeared together. In 1836 he published his "Astoria," and "Captain Bonneville," both full of that vivid description of a trapper's perilous and romantic life in which Irving excels and loves to deal. In 1839 and 1840 he contributed to the "Knickerbocker Magazine" a series of sketches of manners, traditions, and customs, sufficient to form some three duodecimo volumes, which might with propriety be called a continuation of the "Sketch-Book." His most recent work (1850) is his "Life of Oliver Goldsmith," an expansion of a sketch written several years before for an American edition of Goldsmith's works. In 1841, soon after the Whig national administration came into power, Mr. Irving was appointed minister plenipotentiary to the court of Spain. In London and Paris, as he passed through those cities, he was warmly greeted by his old friends and associates; and in Madrid, where he resided four years, he renewed his acquaintance with the distinguished scholars and men of letters whom he had known while writing in that capital his "History of Columbus," and "Conquest of Granada." On the election of Mr. Polk, the democratic President, he was recalled at his own request, and in the autumn of 1846 he returned to New York, and retired to his little estate at Woolfesty Roost, to spend there the remainder of his days. Although never married he has for years had about him a household, the daughters of a brother, who have been to him as his own children, and *who bear to him* all the love that a father could engage.

J.

JELLACHICH, JOSEPH BARON VON, Ban of Croatia, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia, distinguished by his services to the Austrian monarchy during the Hungarian war, is the eldest son of Baron Francis Jellachich de Buszin, formerly a lieutenant-field-marshal in the Austrian service. Joseph was born October 16, 1801, in the fortress of Peterwardein. His father being very much absent in the French wars during the youth of the son, the education of the latter devolved on his mother, a woman of spirit and ability. In 1810 his father died, and his mother took him to the court, and presented him to the Emperor Francis, who took a liking to him, on account of the quick and bold answers he returned to questions put to him, and placed him in the military academy called the Thereseum, where so many able officers of the empire have been trained. It was here that Jellachich rapidly developed that surprising power of language that is one of his greatest and most useful accomplishments. He devoted himself ardently to the military sciences and to history; and, in order to form himself a complete soldier, spent several hours each day in manly exercises, so that when he left school he had no superior in the use of the sword, or the rifle, or in the saddle. At eighteen years of age, well endowed and trained, both in body and mind, and in all the vigour of a hopeful youth, he entered as sub-lieutenant the dragoon regiment of his great-uncle, Baron Knesevich of St. Helena, Vice-ban of Croatia, then lying in garrison at Tarnow, in Galicia. His relish for the enjoyments of life was unbounded, but his attention to duty unrelaxing. If he were the last at the mess-table or in the ball-room, he was first at the manœuvre. His was a nature to acquire influence over any by whom he might be surrounded. His wit and his weapon were alike ready, and his good-humour inexhaustible. His pen was every now and then seized to draw, in a few vivid strokes, some grotesque picture of folly or absurd costume for the amusement of his companions. Among those which have been preserved is one well known in Germany,—his "Garrisons-leid," a piquant satire on the old military system of the country. After five

years passed in the trying pursuits of boisterous pleasure his constitution began to fail him, and he was compelled to visit Agram for his health. For several months his life was despaired of. He beguiled the solitude of a sick chamber by composing a number of poems, which betray a high degree of poetic sensibility, and which since collated into a volume and published are highly esteemed. His constitution having at length triumphed in this strife of life and death, he was able in 1825 to rejoin his regiment, having been meanwhile made full lieutenant. He soon showed that affliction had not changed his nature, and freely committed himself to the old round of exciting pleasures. The regiment was now in Vienna, the European capital of enjoyment. Major-general Baron Geramb made Jellachich his adjutant, and he became so indispensable to the society of his patron that when the regiment departed for Poland he must remain behind. Tiring in time of the enervating life of Vienna, he rejoined his comrades in the following year, and was their leader in duties and frolics. The prescribed routine was always punctually performed, but the sabre laid down, the officers assembled generally at some village inn at a safe distance from quarters, and after spending a riotous day had to gallop through the darkness in order not to fail at the parade next morning. Jellachich was a bold rider, and many stories are told of his hairbreadth escapes when travelling, not with the coolest head, over a country abounding in swamps and barren wastes. Shortly after the French Revolution of July 1830, when the augmentation of the Austrian army, bringing with it advancement and hope, infused a new life into the service, Jellachich obtained, through the interest of Baron von Radossevich, vice-president of the council of the war department, the appointment of captain-lieutenant in a Hulan border regiment. He now left the comrades with whom he had served eighteen years, a pure-blooded Croat, and rejoiced to return to his loved native land. By this time he was known in his garrison-songs to the whole army, and probably no second officer unites its sympathies so entirely in himself as Jellachich. In 1831 he marched with his Hulans to Italy, and there profited by the intimacy and counsels of the veteran Radetsky. Having remained four years in Italy he returned to Croatia, and was for some time engaged in the exciting and bloody warfare

carried on upon the Bosnian frontier. In the beginning of 1837 he was made major in the Archduke Ernest's regiment, and general-commando-adjutant to Count Lilienberg, then Governor of Dalmatia. He now renounced the frivolities of his youth, and devoted himself with unwearied energies to the cultivation of his profession, and the acquisition of the knowledge demanded in one charged with real and onerous duties. He studied the position and state of Dalmatia, and perceived, as Napoleon had done before him, that this poor country might be made a most valuable member of the Austrian state. On the death of Lilienberg, Jellachich was made lieutenant-colonel in the first Banat border regiment; and in 1842 its colonelcy and full command was given him. In this capacity he took frequent part in the contests with the Bosnians, and exhibited considerable bravery and skill at the battle of Pasvid. During this time the Ban had been no stranger to the political movements of his own country, or those of the empire. The people of Croatia (formerly an independent kingdom, but united to the crown of Hungary upon the decease of the last king) had from time immemorial regarded their nationality even more than liberty itself. Inhabiting a territory well defined by natural limits,—one in race, language, and religion, they had borne with impatience the ascendancy of the Magyars in the administration of the Hungarian kingdom, with which they were now incorporated. When, therefore, in 1848, the Hungarians sought to detach themselves still more completely from Austria, by demanding a national administration untrammelled by the so-called Hungarian chancery at Vienna, Jellachich saw an opportunity most favourable to his ambition. He represented to his countrymen that if the supervision of the imperial government over the dealings of Magyars with Croats, Servs, and Wallachians ceased, the smaller races would lie at the mercy of the dominant nationality; and his argument so far prevailed, that the Croats sent an embassy to Vienna to declare their readiness to pour out their blood in defending the integrity of the empire. To this offer they joined the prayer that Jellachich might be appointed their Ban. The court at Vienna was but too glad to find any one of the Austrian peoples speaking of the "integrity of the empire," and making it a watchword, especially when that people occupied a position so favourable for operations against the trouble-

some Hungarians. They perceived, too, in Jellachich the very instrument for turning all the moral and material resources of Croatia to account. The prayer of the Croats was granted. Jellachich returned to the south, Ban of the three kingdoms, privy-councillor, field-marshal, and commander-in-chief of the Banat and the Warasdin and Carlstadt districts. He saw at once the difficulties and also the opportunities of his position. The Croats were disunited: a Royalist, a Hungarian, and a Republican party existed among them. Jellachich took for his battle-cry, "The Emperor, and an undivided Austria." He, however, soon saw that he must appeal to the common sympathies of the whole south Sclavistic nations, and rouse these against the Magyars, if he would accomplish anything effective, whether for himself or the court. The idea of making Austria entirely a Sclavonic state was urged with violence in societies, in newspapers at Prague, at Agram, and even in the imperial parliament. A scheme of erecting the Sclavish nationalities of the south was another much-canvassed subject; and, in the doubt and uncertainty which hung over the future of Austria, many reasons for fostering the settlement of race must have visited Jellachich's mind. However, his first care was to confirm his new authority. By the mass of his nation he was idolised, and he proceeded to develope an energy which gave confidence to the most timid. He appeared wherever his presence was required, generally suddenly and unannounced; harangued the masses; admonished officials; adjured the clergy to support him from pulpit and altar; rewarded, punished, arranged, abolished, just as circumstances required. Once, hearing that an assembly was sitting to oppose his government, he entered unexpectedly, when his appearance was the signal for a general murmur. A vice-gespan rose, and indignantly assured him that "if his object was intimidation he had mistaken his men: not if he came with ten thousand bayonets at his back would he make them afraid." Jellachich took out his sword, threw it on the ground, and with clenched fist knocked the speaker flat on the floor; then, with glittering eye and thundering voice, he bid him know that the Ban needed not arms to restore order and quiet in the land. The braggarts, who had just before murmured, struck with astonishment and admiration, broke *out into equally* contemptible expressions of applause. His

influence with the southern Sclaves, meanwhile, increased more and more, and now seemed dangerous to the court itself. It was known that he had been in communication with the Panslave society at Prague, and fears were entertained that his position would be used to the disadvantage of the empire. Croatia was in actual rebellion against the government, inasmuch as he refused to obey the orders of the ministry at Pesth, to which he was legally subordinated. The Bathyani cabinet demanded with right that the Emperor should either procure the submission of the Ban or depose him from his dignities. Ferdinand, or rather the *camarilla*, thought the latter would be both the easier and the safer course, especially as it would only be a transaction on paper, and would in nowise hinder the prosecution of Jellachich's designs upon the independence of Hungary. Accordingly, an imperial mandate was issued from Innspruck, in which the Ban was required to appear and answer for his conduct, and at the same time admonished not to hold the Diet appointed to meet at Agram on the 5th of June. Jellachich determined not to be diverted from his course, but held the Diet, and caused the Archbishop of Karlowitz to consecrate him Ban. He now set out, accompanied by a deputation, to meet the emperor at Innspruck, and passed through the Tyrol, where he was received with general rejoicings by the inhabitants. Prince Paul Esterhazy had received orders from Pesth to insist upon being present at any interview between Jellachich and the Emperor. The Ban declared that he would submit neither himself nor his country to any control on the part of the Hungarian ministry. He repaired to the Archduke Franz Karl and the Archduchess Sophia, the two heads of the court party, and was most heartily welcomed. His denunciation as a traitor was not mentioned to him, and, indeed, he was not aware of it until he left Innspruck,—a proof with how much sincerity it had been issued. The Archduke John now advised that a middle course should be adopted, and that a public and solemn audience should be granted to the Ban. For this purpose a large hall was filled with the hangers-on of the court. The royal family with the emperor were there, and Jellachich stood forth, and in an harangue of three-quarters of an hour declared the readiness of himself and his people to die for the house of Hapsburg.

Promises, popular rights, ancient charters, were all forgotten by the selfish court, which wept hot tears over its own wrongs as depicted by the eloquent Ban. From that moment Hungary was sold, and delivered up by its faithless king to war and slavery. The mask of hypocrisy was, however, still found convenient. The stigma of high treason was not recalled, while the emperor and royal family were yet fondling the traitor. He now set out on a triumphal return to his government. Only at Lienz did he meet, in a small newspaper, with the decree denouncing him as a traitor, and depriving him of all dignities and privileges. He had scarcely returned when he found it necessary to proceed to Vienna, where he held a fruitless interview with Bathyani. On the 29th of June he addressed a large crowd from his dwelling, and declared his cause to be that of an undivided and powerful Austria. Meanwhile, Radetsky had been victorious in Italy. The house of Lorraine-Hapsburg, restored to confidence by that victory, thought the time come to throw off the mask, and to involve Hungary, still bleeding from past wounds, in the horrors of a fresh war of oppression. The king from that moment began openly to address the man whom he himself had branded as a rebel as "dear and loyal;" he praised him for his revolt, and encouraged him to proceed in the same path. Jellachich now began the campaign. He assembled an army, crossed the Drave, and even advanced as far as Stuhlweissenberg, being joined by the Austrian troops on his way. The Hungarian ministry, although unprepared for this invasion, raised troops and beat the Ban, who obtained a truce only to escape in the night. The defeated troops fled in the direction of Vienna, and joined Windischgrätz's forces. The united army again entered Hungary, and then began the war, which continued through two bloody campaigns, and, completed only by the aid of the Cossack, reflected eternal glory on the Hungarian nation and infamy on its oppressors. Had Jellachich been anything more than a soldier, swayed by a blind attachment to the reigning house, he must have been profoundly afflicted with the fruits of his mischievous valour. He has not only done more than any other to bring the ancient and free Hungarian nation into the dust, but he has ruined the liberties of his own Croatia. His countrymen now perceive *that they have* been the blind instruments of Austrian

tyranny at the sacrifice of their own rights. But the smiles of the Austrian court are to Jellachich a sufficient solace for a thousand such reflections.

JERROLD, DOUGLAS, Author, and one of the chief writers in "Punch," was born at Sheerness, about 1805. His father was manager of the theatre there; and thus, in his earliest days, the future successful dramatist obtained an acquaintance with "things theatrical." When old enough, he was bitten by the sea-side mania, and "would be a sailor,"—a taste which he was allowed to indulge for a short time on board a man-of-war. In his new character of midshipman the romance of the salt water quickly evaporated, and the delicate lad was glad to get on shore again. He soon afterwards commenced the struggle of literary life in London,—one of his earliest companions in those days being the late Leman Blanchard. Together they courted the Muses, and did battle with publishers and managers. Perhaps the literary world may be some day interested by our author's own account of the earlier efforts of the future winner of popularity. At present little is known of them. A writer who has ventured upon a sketch of Jerrold says:—"Let it not be supposed by sonnet-writing young men, that he achieved this distinction easily; no one leap into the seat of honour was his; but a painful, heart-breaking, toiling up that hill which always reminds us of the labour of Sisyphus: how often when we believe we have rolled the stone to the top does it slip from us, and roll down thundering to the base! So with Jerrold; dread was his fight, but his heart held out, and he triumphed. His greatest first success was the drama of 'The Rent Day.' This was so true a picture, that all felt it go to the heart, and the author was installed a master of smiles and tears on the spot. To this succeeded many a soul-stirring piece of dramatic life, all calculated to fill the house, and render the writer popular with audience and manager. A curious rencounter happened to Jerrold on the first night of 'The Rent Day.' When he was a midshipman on board a man-of-war, he met in the same capacity a lad named Clarkson Stanfield. Sixteen years after, these two sailor boys met on the boards of a London theatre,—one the great scene painter, and the other a successful dramatist. Here, however, he might have remained

to the end of the chapter, merely considered as a prolific writer of farces, two-act comedies, and domestic melodramas; fortunately, however, 'Punch' was started, and after a few numbers Jerrold became one of its leading spirits. The after success of that publication it is unnecessary to revert to; it is well known all over the world. In this Jerrold first became the 'observed writer,' and every paper he wrote was eagerly perused. A circulation of seventy thousand copies soon made the chief writer one of the most popular authors of the time. 'The Story of a Feather' was first published here; so also were 'The Caudle Lectures;' and gave ample scope for the peculiarities of his style and thought. Shortly after the establishment of 'Punch' he commenced a monthly review, called the 'Illuminated Magazine;' in this first appeared his 'Clovernook,' one of the best written of his works. After a year or so he discontinued this publication, and started another, called 'Douglas Jerrold's Shilling Magazine.' In this first appeared the tale of 'St. Giles's and St. James's.' In July 1846 he commenced a weekly newspaper, which he afterwards sold; and now devotes himself principally to 'Punch.'" Besides domestic dramas, satires, and fictions, Mr. Jerrold has produced some dramatic works of a high order of merit; amongst which 'Time Works Wonders" and "The Bubbles of the Day" stand pre-eminent. Probably, however, his efforts which have been most completely enjoyed by the public are those productions of humbler literary rank, "The Rent Day" and "Black-eyed Susan,"—dramas which long enjoyed and still enjoy a solid popularity in the minor theatres of England.

JOINVILLE, FRANCOIS-FERDINAND-PHILIPPE-LOUIS-MARIE D'ORLEANS, PRINCE DE, was born at Neuilly, October 14, 1818. He entered the French navy at an early age, and particularly distinguished himself at the taking of St. Jean d'Ullo. The young prince had been educated with care, and early gave proof of considerable attainments. Nautical studies, however, engaged his chief attention, when once he was fairly embarked in his profession; and he became in time the favourite of the whole French navy. In 1841, when Louis-Philippe had determined to gratify the feelings of the nation by restoring to France the *remains of* her great Emperor, the Prince de Joinville was

selected to command the frigate, the Belle Poule, charged with that service; and brought to Europe the body of Napoleon. Two years afterwards he married Donna Francisca de Braganza, the ceremony taking place at Rio de Janiero. When the Revolution of 1848 overturned the constitutional monarchy, the Prince was occupied with his naval duties: he unhesitatingly accepted the misfortunes of his family, and came to England to seek refuge in a land which he had previously, as a published pamphlet shows, contemplated as a field for his hostile and warlike exploits, residing with the rest of the Orleans family at Claremont. The nephew of the man to whom he did honour at St. Helena now interdicts to him his native soil.

K.

KNIGHT, CHARLES, Publisher and Author, born at Windsor, about 1800. Mr. Knight has written a number of very agreeable literary sketches, and is also the author of a "Life of Shakspere." The public, however, are chiefly indebted to him in his character of projector and producer of cheap and good editions of valuable books. The "Penny Magazine" and "Penny Cyclopædia," the "Shilling Volumes," the "Pictorial Bible" and "Pictorial Shakspere," all bear testimony to Mr. Knight's right to be ranked amongst the friends of literature and education, and amongst those who have exercised an useful influence upon the character of their time.

KNOWLES, JAMES SHERIDAN, Dramatic Poet, was born in 1784, at Cork, where his father, cousin-german of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, was master of a celebrated school. The younger Knowles was sent at a very early age to England, to receive his education, and is said to have produced an opera, called "The Chevalier de Grillon," before arriving at the age of fourteen. At twenty-one he wrote a tragedy in five acts, entitled "The Spanish Story;" at twenty-four, "Hersilia;" and at twenty-five, "The Gipsy." These were followed by "Brian Boroihme," which has frequently been performed

with great applause. Having in the meantime gone upon the stage, Mr. Knowles was for three years an actor. He then settled in Glasgow, as a teacher of elocution. After remaining in that city for several years he returned to the stage, under the impression that no performer could conceive so well as himself the characters he had drawn. His next production was "Caius Gracchus," which was played in London. He afterwards produced "Virginius," which appeared in 1820. It was this popular drama which first gained Mr. Knowles a wide reputation. It is founded, as its name indicates, on the well-known incident in Livy's Roman History. "Virginius" was very successful. The play of "William Tell" was the next which Knowles produced. In 1828 appeared "The Beggar's Daughter of Bethnal Green," founded on the old ballad of that name; then followed "Alfred," which was acted with success; and afterwards "The Hunchback," one of the most popular English dramas in possession of the stage; and "The Wife, a Tale of Mantua," a beautiful production. Mr. Knowles' next play was "The Love-Chase," an invention of his own, like the two latter dramas, and now, like them, a favourite "stock piece" of the stage. "The Maid of Mariendorpt," in five acts, the plot of which is taken from Miss Porter's novel of a similar title, was produced at the Haymarket in 1838, with some success. In 1843 he produced another drama in five acts, called "The Secretary." Mr. Knowles' plays have been collected and published in three volumes. They are all written on the model of the elder dramatists. In 1847 Mr. Knowles published a novel in three volumes, called "George Lovell." Mr. Knowles has also written "Fortescue," a tale, for the columns of the "Sunday Times" newspaper, as well as contributed various pieces to the annuals and other publications. He has travelled all over the kingdom, lecturing on dramatic literature; and in 1835 he visited the United States. In 1849 the Government paid a tardy tribute to the powers of this most popular dramatist, by settling upon him a pension of 200*l.* per annum.

KNOX, ROBERT, Journalist, editor of the "Morning Herald," was born in Ireland about 1808. He was for some years on the press in his own country, but subsequently *came to London*, where he rose by successive steps to the

responsible post he now occupies as editor of a daily morning newspaper.

KOSSUTH, LOUIS (LAJOS, in the Hungarian tongue), ex-Governor of Hungary, was born in the year 1806, at Monok, in the county of Zemplin. His father, a small owner of the noble class, was an advocate, descended from an ancient family, out of which, during the civil wars from 1527 to 1715, the Austrian Government selected seventeen members for prosecution on charges of high treason. His property, limited to a few acres of vineyard and arable land, did not permit much expense in the education of his children, but he placed his son Louis in the Protestant College of Scharaschpatack, where the latter qualified himself for the profession of an advocate. On obtaining his diploma he became agent to a Countess Szapary, and the influence derived from this position, and the relations established by him at college with the noble classes of the district, gave him weight in the Comital Assembly, wherein nobles and officials met about six times in the year to discuss local affairs. When Kossuth had obtained the twenty-seventh year of his age, his great natural gifts and distinguished attainments drew upon him the notice of a wealthy magnate, who chose him as his representative in the National Diet at Presburg, and thither the young lawyer went in 1832, enjoying a residence rent free, a seat at the table of Deputies, and a right of speaking but not of voting; as did 300 similar representatives of absentee noblemen, most of which representatives were educated for the law. Mr. Paget, in his "Travels in Hungary," published thirteen years ago, speaking of the notabilities of the Diet whom he saw and heard at his visit to Presburg in 1835, particularly noticed Kossuth, who thus, in his third year, had already acquired distinction, and pointed prophetically to his future greatness. It was the custom at the Hungarian Diet for the speakers to declare themselves in a few, clear, and emphatic sentences, leaving set speeches for formal occasions. In his capacity of deputy Kossuth had to furnish accounts of the proceeding in the Diet to his principal; and he had no sooner entered on the functions of his office than the manner and style of his reports attracted the attention of his private friends, and by degrees that of members of the Diet,

and others interested in its proceedings. His reports and commentaries on the most important debates were in great requisition, and it was ultimately resolved to print and circulate them. A small lithographic printing-press was purchased by a general subscription of the Liberal Opposition. M. Kossuth's reports, thus multiplied, were published under the title of a "Parliamentary Gazette," and distributed among the subscribers and those country gentlemen who chose to purchase political intelligence at the price of a few shillings per annum. This undertaking, however limited in its extent, exercised a powerful influence on the political developement of Hungary; an influence which became soon manifest to those agents of the Government whose duty it was to watch and report on the state of public opinion. The Journalist was a source of serious annoyance to the Austrian government, and an injunction was issued to prevent the publication of his reports by means of lithography. The reports were now copied by a staff of clerks to be published in manuscript, and of necessity the price was raised to six florins a-month. This, of course, decreased the number of readers, but still each comitat was a customer of from one to six copies. In the town several societies paid in advance, and many deputies contributed; for it was found that the speeches of subscribers and benefactors were improved under Kossuth's treatment, and reputation and popularity flowed from his pen. After the conclusion of the Diet, Kossuth determined to cultivate the public spirit of his countrymen by publishing reports of the proceedings in the country assemblies, as he had already done in the National Diet, and selected the county of Pesth. Until this time the king's lieutenants in the various counties had succeeded in preventing the publication of the local or county Diets; and by so doing, they prevented all joint action and co-operation of the various Hungarian districts. Injunction after injunction was issued from Vienna demanding the cessation of these reports, and all were disregarded by M. Kossuth. Orders were issued for his arrest; but the Count Raviczky, the Chancellor of the Kingdom, refused to sign the necessary warrants. He was removed, and his place given to the Count F. Palffy, a trusty agent of Metternich; and the cities of Buda and Pesth witnessed the extraordinary spectacle of a company of Grenadiers, with fixed bayonets, marching to

arrest a single and defenceless man. Never was a greater tribute paid to the force of public opinion, which was all Kossuth could then command, than when the Franklin of Zemplin, the salaried clerk of a country gentleman, and the publisher and editor of a small local newspaper, was arrested, with all the pride, pomp, and circumstance of a martial expedition. Kossuth was now marched from his residence among the hills of Ofen to the new prison at Pesth. His papers also were seized, including many important letters from the Opposition; in which, however, no pretext was afforded for the notice of his prosecutors. The Baron Nicholas Wesseleny, who was also charged with high treason, conducted Kossuth's defence. In Hungary the possession of a certain amount of property is considered a security against the escape of an accused party, and therefore the baron was at large; but Kossuth, not having the required amount of property, remained in personal durance. Several of Kossuth's young political adherents were also arrested on charges of high treason, and he himself was conveyed to the fortress of Ofen, where, as the Austrian authorities allege, he was allowed books, writing materials, and newspapers, and a daily walk on the bastions with an officer. Here he devoted himself, with much application, to political studies and to the French language and literature. It was about this time that the relation commenced, which resulted in his subsequent marriage, with Mdlle. Wesseleny, daughter of the Baron Wesseleny, who conducted his defence. This young lady, inspired with admiration for his political integrity, sent him books, and exchanged letters with him in his captivity. They were married soon after his liberation in 1841. The sanction of the Romish Church was obtained for this mixed marriage with difficulty, and it was celebrated by a Protestant clergyman. The proceeding for high treason ended in 1839, with a sentence to four years' imprisonment "for having disobeyed the king's orders." Wesseleny was condemned to the same. This sentence appears extremely mild, if compared with the long terms of imprisonment which the Austrian judges are in the habit of pronouncing against those whom their government has cause to fear or to hate. But so great are the horrors of an Austrian state prison, which the experience of later years shows have been truthfully described by Silvio Pellico and other

Italian convicts, that even the confinement of a few months sufficed to affect the health of body and mind of many unfortunate men who were consigned to them. The connexion between Wesseleny and Kossuth was cemented by equality in suffering and the halo of patriotism which attached to them both. In the year 1839 the Government demanded from the Hungarian Diet 18,000 recruits. The popular party, aided by public excitement, caused by Kossuth's imprisonment, procured the election of deputies pledged to obtain an amnesty and other concessions on the condition of granting the levy of recruits. The Austrian party advised the Government to liberate Baron Wesseleny and the other convicts, and to be satisfied with punishing Kossuth alone; but, at all events, to settle this matter before the opening of the Diet. But the Austrian ministry would make no concession. The Diet opened, and for half a year the contest was maintained between the Austrian and the popular parties. The latter obtained at the table of Deputies a censure of the tribunals, an amnesty, and other demands, including the further establishment of the Hungarian language, by a majority of two. But at the table of the Magnates there was a majority of nine-tenths against them; and hence the Austrian party hoped ultimately to gain their point. But Prince Metternich, being eager to obtain the grant of the 18,000 recruits, was uneasy at the continuance of the dispute, and in 1840 a royal rescript conceded the amnesty, which was backed by verbal communications calculated to soothe the popular deputies. The recruits and a contribution were now voted. Kossuth's glory was enhanced, as the sentence passed upon him was the originating cause of the popular triumph. Kossuth came forth from his prison amid the acclamations of the people, and 10,000 florins were subscribed for his family. On the 1st January, 1841, he became chief editor of the "Pesthi Hirlap," which journal soon counted 4000 subscribers, at twelve florins a-year, raising his share of profits to 12,000 florins a-year, whereby he was enabled not only to meet his current expenses, but to purchase a small estate in the comitat of Gran for 30,000 florins. Whilst the masterly management of his journal in the cause of popular rights greatly extended his influence, the Government passively looked on; but the Austrian party sought to check the mischief, and a

conservative journal, "The Vilag," was set up under the management of Count Aurelius Dussewffy. The death of this count in 1842 replaced Kossuth in undisturbed possession of the influence of the press. In the Pesth Assembly three leading speakers maintained, with various success, the contest against Kossuth. These were Dessewffy, Count Stephen Szecheny, and Ziedenyi; the latter of whom, as a Protestant and principal orator of the Austrian Tories at the table of Deputies, had some followers. They could not master the Opposition liberal spirit in the comitat, but they gave much trouble to Kossuth. They lost their mainstay in Dessewffy, but having the governmental influence at their command, they managed to defeat the election of Kossuth for the Diet of 1843. Count Szecheny endeavoured, towards the end of 1842, to neutralise the doctrines of Kossuth by his work "Kelet Nepè" (The People of the East), in which he sought to make out a case against the projects of his adversary for a separation from Austria. This publication excited some interest, but was mainly remarkable for having called forth a warm reply from Kossuth, and several other answers from his adherents; but while it failed, as books generally fail, to meet the influence of a journal, it raised the popularity of Kossuth, and diminished that of its author. The Diet of 1843–44 arrived, at the commencement of which Kossuth published, under censure, the reports of its proceedings. The number of his subscribers rose to 7000; but the publisher of the paper acting illiberally, Kossuth retired from it, and in the endeavour to gain permission to set up a journal of his own, made a journey to Vienna. He had here a first and last interview with Prince Metternich, whom he suspected as the instigator of his difficulties about the paper he had left. He, of course, obtained no privilege; but the minister, it is said, offered him great advantages if he would use his pen for the Government: an offer which he spurned as it deserved. Some of the Conservatives advised the granting what Kossuth asked. They foresaw the danger to despotism which might arise should he fling himself into the field of more direct agitation. These reasons were either disbelieved or distrusted by the Government, and the consequences predicted soon arose. Every day now brought new tributes to his wonderful talents and influence. Foremost among those who

rallied to his side was Count Louis Bathyany, a nobleman whose illustrious house had given generals, ambassadors, archbishops, and even palatines, to its country. Rich in the possession of vast estates, this patrician allied himself with Kossuth, and perceiving the immense benefit which their country would derive from the services of the young patriot by his election to a place in the Diet, he assisted him with his influence in contesting the comitat of Pesth, for which he speedily took his seat. In Presburg, Kossuth soon became paramount at the table of Deputies; the proceedings, however, had not yet stepped beyond the usual track of Opposition policy, when the Paris revolution of February exploded, and spread its influence over the kingdom of Hungary. In Kossuth it revived visions of his country's glory, in whose splendour all personal risk was despised. With the Vienna revolution came the necessity for immediate action. A Hungarian ministry was planned, with Count Louis Bathyany for its president. The table of Magnates demurred, but the second day of the spreading insurrection of Vienna made resistance impossible. Kossuth availed himself of the moment with all the energy of his nature. The youth of Presburg was armed as a national guard; in Pesth, patriotic assemblies were organised. On the 15th of March, Kossuth appeared as the hero of his country, at the head of a states deputation in Vienna, in order to receive his own appointment to a ministry. Vienna national guards, with the theatre director, Carl, at their head, drew his carriage into the city. Guards of honour were posted at his lodging; Count Brenner, Prince Lamberg, Professor Hye, and other notabilities of the Austrian Liberal party, waited upon him; and the students, carried away by enthusiastic admiration for the young Magyar, declared their readiness to storm the palace should his appointment be refused. The ministry was ratified by an imperial signature, and Kossuth returned in triumph to Presburg, where he might have boasted that he held the fate of the house of Hapsburg in his hand. The revolutions of February and March produced no turbulence at Pesth; their only effect was to destroy the Government at Vienna, and render the appointment of a Hungarian Palatine and a Hungarian Ministry unavoidable. At a later period the *effervescence* which prevailed over Europe, and at several

constituent assemblies, aroused the Hungarian Diet to liberal measures. But these were always a developement of the Hungarian constitution, rather than an importation of foreign or ultra-democratic ideas. In the composition of the ministry, Louis Bathyany was made President of the Council, and Prince Esterhazy Minister of Foreign Affairs. Kossuth, with a sure presentiment of the mighty task before the nation, now betook himself to the department of finance, in which he afterwards proved so great a master, and for the first two months was exclusively occupied in his own arrangements, and refrained from interference in other departments. Under his influence the Diet forthwith consummated all those important internal reforms which he had formerly advocated. The last remains of the oppressive feudal system were swept away. The peasants were declared free from all seignorial claims; in other words, the tenants of one-half the lands in Hungary were declared possessors of that land, rent-free, the landlords to be indemnified by the country at large. The peasant and the burgher were at once admitted to all the rights of nobles; and a new electoral law was passed, conferring the suffrage on all who possessed property to the amount of 300 florins, or thirty pounds sterling. After decreeing these important measures the Diet was dissolved, and a new Diet was summoned for the second of July. When, however, the Servians on the one hand, and the Croats on the other, became unreasonable, and when his colleagues—Baron Corvos, Deak, and Clauzal—supported by the Palatine, suggested a trimming policy, his spirit rose with the occasion, and in the end the ministry gave way to Kossuth, feeling that their own dissolution was inseparable from his retirement. In the beginning of July, Jellachich repaired to Innspruck, and there formed the compact against the liberties of Hungary which he but too faithfully fulfilled. A collusive attempt was then made to smooth away the difference between the Ban of Croatia and the Hungarian Ministry, and the Archduke John was entrusted with the task of mediation. The two plenipotentiaries parted with terms of mutual defiance. "We shall meet again on the Drave" (the frontier of Croatia), said Count Bathyany. "No," retorted Jellachich; "but on the Danube." While Jellachich was strengthening his connexion with Vienna, the Hungarian Government was opening

the new Diet at Pesth. The previous assemblies had met at Presburg, a little town on the verge of the Austrian frontier, and consequently placed, as it were, under the hands of the Imperial Government. The Archduke Stephen opened the Diet on the 5th July, in the name of his Majesty King Ferdinand V. The language in which he condemned the Croat insurrection was unequivocal. "The King," he said, "after having spontaneously sanctioned the laws voted by the Diet, has seen with grief that the agitators in Croatia have excited the inhabitants of different creeds and languages against each other. By harassing them with false rumours and idle terrors, they have been driven to resist laws, which they assumed were not the free expression of his Majesty's will. Some have gone further, and have averred that their resistance was made in the interest of the royal house, and with the knowledge and consent of his Majesty. His Majesty scorns such insinuations; the King and his royal family will at all times respect the laws and protect the liberties granted to his people." In the Chamber of Deputies, Kossuth explained the existing state of things in a speech which proved how fully he was alive to the difficulties of his government. "You see with your own eyes," he said, "the frightful situation of the country; the treasury is empty, and the land without an army. Perhaps we are come too late to complete the reforms of the constitution. Justice had been too long delayed, and the day when its reign was proclaimed beheld the dissolution of all the bonds that had held the nation together." With respect to the Croatian question, he was of opinion, that notwithstanding the evident rights of Hungary, the only means that remained for it to settle its difference with Croatia was, to entreat the king to interfere as mediator between the two countries. In conclusion, he asked for an extraordinary contribution of 50,000,000 florins, and a levy of 200,000 men, both for the purpose of terminating the quarrel with Croatia, by force of arms if needful, and also in order to aid in supporting the cause of the empire in Italy. These proposals were adopted by acclamation, and a decree was issued for the creation of 5,000,000 of paper money. In a speech which he made six days afterwards, he thus depicted the situation of his nation:—"Do not deceive yourselves, citi*zens," he* exclaimed; "the Magyars stand alone in the

world against the conspiracy of the sovereigns and nations that surround them. The Emperor of Russia besets us through the Principalities, and everywhere, even in Servia, we detect his hand and his gold. In the north, the armed bands of Sclaves are endeavouring to join the rebels of Croatia, and are preparing to march against us; in Vienna, the courtiers and statesmen are calculating the advent of the day when they shall be able again to rivet the chains of their old slaves the Magyars, an undisciplined and rebellious race. Oh, my fellow-citizens, it is thus that tyrants have ever designated free men. You are alone, I repeat; are you ready and willing to fight?" During the months of July and August the strife between the Imperial Government and the Hungarians was waged with arms of courtesy; but by September they had come to more clearly defined positions. Early in that month the Emperor refused to sanction the decree of the Diet for the emission of the paper money; and this refusal was met in Hungary by another decree, making it a capital felony to refuse the national currency. Meanwhile civil war was raging with great vehemence in all the borderlands of Hungary: some troops were assembled on the frontiers of Croatia, under the immediate command of Meszaros, the Hungarian Minister of War; but they consisted chiefly of Sclaves, at that time an inefficient body, and scarcely to be relied on. On the 5th of September Kossuth was carried to the hall of the Diet, enfeebled by illness, but determined not to flinch from a crisis which might be decisive of his country's welfare. He declared that, looking upon the formidable dangers that surrounded them, the ministers of the Crown might soon have to call upon the House to name a Dictator, invested with unlimited powers, to save the country; but they were prepared to recommend a last appeal to the Imperial Government before they resorted to a measure which might be construed into a declaration of independence. A deputation was accordingly formed, consisting of one hundred and sixty magnates and deputies, who waited on his Majesty at Schönbrunn, and addressed him in the name of the Diet in plain and noble language:—"It is in the name of that fidelity we have shown for centuries to your ancestors that we now come to demand of you the maintenance of the rights of the kingdom. Hungary has not been united to your crown as a

conquered province, but as a free nation, whose privileges and independence have been insured by your Majesty's coronation oath..... The wishes of the people have been satisfied by the laws enacted by the last Diet; why are the rights of the nation menaced by an insurrection, the leaders of which declare openly that they are in arms on your Majesty's behalf? Whilst the blood of Hungary is flowing in Italy in defence of the Austrian monarchy, one portion of her children is perfidiously excited against the other, and casts off the obedience due to the legal Government of the country. Insurrection threatens our frontiers, and, under the pretence of upholding your authority, it is actually assailing the integrity of the kingdom, and our ancient and new liberties!.... It is in the name of the people we call on your Majesty to order the Hungarian regiments to obey the Hungarian ministry, without reserve, and notwithstanding all other orders. We desire that Croatia be freed from military despotism, in order that it may unite fraternally with Hungary. Finally, we demand that your Majesty, discarding the reactionary counsels of those about you, give your immediate sanction to all the measures voted by the Diet, and come and reside in Pesth among your people, where your royal presence is necessary to save the country. Let your Majesty hasten. The least delay may occasion indescribable calamities." To these just demands the Emperor evasively replied, that "The bad state of his health would not allow him to go to Pesth. As for the paper-money bill, which he was asked to sanction, he would give it his candid consideration, but he was inclined to reject it: and as for the Croatian question, he had already addressed a manifesto to the Ban, in order to bring about an amicable and conciliatory settlement." The deputation heard the Emperor's reply in silence, and left the presence without uttering a single *vivat*. The ministers Deak and Bathyany, who were at Vienna, left the capital with them. The deputies plucked from their caps the plumes of the united colours of Austria and Hungary, replaced them with red feathers, and hoisted a flag of the same colour on the steamer in which they returned to Pesth. The report of the deputation excited deep resentment in the Hungarian capital; the debates in the Diet were vehement and stormy, but the advice of the old constitutional Opposition prevailed,

and it was resolved to make another pacific appeal to the Emperor, through the mediation of the Palatine. Kossuth and his colleagues resigned, and Count Bathyany undertook to form an administration of a more moderate caste; but before his cabinet was well completed, Jellachich had begun hostilities, the Diet had suffered another repulse at Vienna, and the public feeling demanded Kossuth's return to power. On the 17th of September, the Diet had resolved that a deputation of twenty-five members should proceed to Vienna, put themselves in direct communication with the National Assembly, denounce the treacherous conduct of the Central Government, and apply directly to the representatives of the empire for aid against the Croats. The Viennese Assembly decided, by a majority of 186 votes to 108, against receiving the deputation. Deeply offended by this insult, the Diet conferred dictatorial powers on Kossuth. The Palatine quitted Hungary on the 25th of September, placed his resignation in the Emperor's hands, and retired to his estate in Moravia. Jellachich, meanwhile, had crossed the Drave, and had issued a proclamation to the Hungarian nation, declaring that this proceeding was inspired only by pure love of country and fidelity to the King. The character assumed by the Ban in this proclamation was that of the chief of an insurgent province, whose proceedings had been openly condemned by the Emperor himself, and by his viceroy the Palatine. The time was not yet come for avowing that he was abetted by the court of Vienna in every advance towards Pesth. Encouraged, however, by the Ban's easy march through Hungary, the Emperor now thought he might act with a little less disguise. He was unfortunate in his plan. He chose Count Lemburg, and sent him to take command of the whole kingdom of Hungary, with the armies contending on the field. What happened might have been anticipated. Lemburg arrived without escort in Pesth. He found the Diet had decreed his appointment illegal; and thus outlawed, the mob fell upon him and slew him. In revenge for this, the Emperor ordered the kingdom to be put under military law, and gave supreme power to Jellachich. The Diet at once revolted against this, and declared itself *permanent;* and appointed Kossuth Governor, with a Committee of Public Safety for his council. The military events which now succeeded, the defensive operations of the

winter of 1849, the transfer of the Diet to Debreczin, the creation by Kossuth of an immense army, his discovery of able and successful generals from among its lieutenants, the declaration of independence, the brilliant campaign in the spring of 1849, the Russian invasion, and the treachery of Görgey, all are familiar to Englishmen, and belong rather to history than biography. After almost superhuman achievements, Kossuth found himself compelled to retire to Turkey. He reached Shumla with Bem, Dembinski, Perczel, Guyon, and 5000 men, and was afterwards appointed a residence in Widdin. Here the Turkish Government, at first alarmed at the menacing attitude of Russia, proposed to the refugees to become Moslems, and a few embraced the proposition; but Kossuth's answer to it was worthy of his character. In a letter addressed to Lord Palmerston on September 20th, he says, "But a fresh letter from his Majesty the Czar arrived in Constantinople, and its consequence was the suggestion sent to us by an express messenger of the Turkish Government, that the Poles and Hungarians, and in particular myself, Count Casimir Bathyany, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Hungary under my government, and the Generals Meszaros and Perczel (all present here), would be surrendered unless we chose to abjure the faith of our forefathers in the religion of Christ and become Mussulmans. .... My answer does not admit of hesitation. Between death and shame the choice can be neither dubious nor difficult. Governor of Hungary, and elected to that high place by the confidence of fifteen millions of my countrymen, I know well what I owe to the honour of my country, even in exile. Even as a private individual I have an honourable path to pursue. Once governor of a generous country, I leave no heritage to my children,—they shall, at least, bear an unsullied name. God's will be done. I am prepared to die." The powerful support of England and France relieved Kossuth from this dreadful alternative, and the refugees were removed to Kutahia in Asia Minor, where they remained prisoners until August 22, 1851. On the 1st of September he left Kutahia, and after touching at Spetzia, called at Marseilles; here he was refused permission to travel through France. Having been hospitably received *and entertained by the officers of the garrison at Gibraltar and at Lisbon, he* reached Southampton on October 28. His

welcome reception in England is too recent to need more than reference. On the 21st of November he sailed in the Humboldt for the United States of America. The author of "The Revelations of Russia," a friend and supporter of Kossuth, says, in a recent publication, "The disasters which have overtaken Hungary have rather tended to cement than to disturb the harmony, and have been powerless to destroy the benefits which Kossuth conferred on millions of his fellow-countrymen. The noble and his emancipated peasant have bled on the same field, perished on the same scaffold, and shared the same captivity; but the landlord sleeps secure in the affections of his former serf, and the former serf retains the freedom which he owes to Kossuth, which even Austria dares not snatch away, and remains in the enjoyment of the lands with which his masters had magnanimously endowed him. It is in this great measure that we must seek the first cause of that wonderful resistance, which enabled a nation limited in number, widely scattered over extensive plains, utterly unarmed and thoroughly surprised, to drive twice back the tide of invasion, to place a mighty empire at their mercy, and to render it more than questionable whether, if not betrayed by Görgey, it would not successfully have resisted the double aggression to which it succumbed at last. It is in this measure we must seek the cause of a popularity greater and more deeply rooted in misfortune than any modern leader has enjoyed in the zenith of success. Nor is this the sole claim of Kossuth to his country's gratitude. It was not only he who prepared it to resist, but he who alone had faith in its genius, who appreciated its powers, and directed that resistance by his inspiriting energy and administrative skill. But for Kossuth, the Magyar nation, divided against itself, must have been swamped in the political convulsions of 1848. But for Kossuth's sagacity and courage, Jellachich and his hordes would have subdued and scattered it in the autumn of 1848. But for Kossuth, Windischgrätz's victorious army would have crushed out its vitality in the spring of 1849. In the first instance, when only 2500 regulars could be mustered to face 50,000 men, every one despaired but Kossuth. In the second, when only a few regiments and raw levies could be collected, to face, in open plains, 100,000 veterans, and make head against three rebellions, no one but Kossuth, his Hon-

veds, and his hussars, believed resistance possible. Yet, in both instances, he raised armies in the very midst of strife, and furnished to guide them the genius of a Carnot."

L.

LABOUCHERE, HENRY, a Minister of State, was born 1798, at Highlands, Essex. He received his education at Christ Church, Oxford, and took honours there in 1820. In 1826 he entered Parliament for the borough of St. Michael's, which he represented until 1830, when he was returned for Taunton, for which he has since sat. He was made a Lord of the Admiralty in 1832; Vice-president of the Board of Trade and Master of the Mint, April 1835; and in March 1839 he became Under-Secretary for the Colonies; in the latter end of 1839 he became President of the Board of Trade, and resigned office with the Whig cabinet in September 1841. With the return of his party in July 1846, he became chief Secretary for Ireland, and in July 1847 again became President of the Board of Trade.

LACORDAIRE, JEAN BAPTISTE HENRI, Abbé, a renowned French Preacher, and sometime a Representative of the People, was born May 12, 1802, in Burgundy; and educated at Dijon, which he left in 1819 to prepare for the stage. He became one of the most able and promising pupils of Talma, whom he strikingly resembles in gesture and intonation. He afterwards studied for the bar, and was a fellow-pupil with Baroche and Chaix d'Est Ange, bidding fair to rival both in talent and popularity. In the capital he resided with a celebrated advocate of the Court of Cassation, and made the acquaintance of Berryer, the great Legitimist lawyer, the Abbé Gerbert, and the eccentric Lamennais. About this time he renounced the sceptical opinions he had imbibed at Dijon, and became an attached member of the Church of Rome. In 1824 he entered the Seminary of St. Sulpice to study for the priesthood, and was ordained 22d September, 1827. It has often been remarked, that *there reigns* in the whole person of Lacordaire a certain

savour of the different social estates through which he has passed, and which follows him into the very pulpit, the graceful and impassioned gesture of the actor often accompanying the subtle argument and brilliant logic of the lawyer. The public eye has ever been upon him; for the restless ambition with which he began his career has outlived his hopeless love, and he has kept both the political and religious world in a state of *émoi* for many years. His connexion with Lamennais in the editing of the liberal journal, "L'Avenir," which appeared soon after the Revolution of 1830, excited some surprise, and drew upon him the attentions of his religious superiors. In obedience to a monition from the bishop, he withdrew from the journal, and renounced the society of his friend, who had refused to obey the directions of the Church. Devoting himself exclusively to his profession, he became one of the most successful and popular of Catholic preachers. His orations at Nôtre Dame and his Lent sermons, both at Paris and in the provinces, drew crowds of admiring auditors. His funeral oration on O'Connell is a striking specimen of pulpit talent employed on the events of the time. After the outbreak of the Revolution of February he became a candidate for the National Assembly, and was elected for the department of the Bouches-du-Rhône. He excited considerable attention as he made his way to the Chamber, attired in his Franciscan habit as if for the pulpit, but had not sat there many days before he discovered that he was out of his place, and gave in his resignation.

LACROSSE, M., appointed Minister of Public Works in France by Louis Napoleon, in November 1851, born in 1794, is the son of Admiral Lacrosse, a distinguished citizen of the first Republic, and officer under the Empire. He was member of the old Chamber of Deputies for Brest, and during several years one of the Secretaries of the Chamber. He always voted with the Opposition against the ministry of Guizot; and carried against the ministry, on the occasion of the rupture of the *entente cordiale* with England *àpropos* of Mr. Pritchard, a motion for adding 93,000,000 of francs to the budget of marine. To the Constituent Assembly he was returned for Finisterre, for which department he continued to sit until the *coup-d'etat* of the 2d of December. After

the election of the 10th December, M. Lacrosse became a Member of the Cabinet of Odillon Barrot, in which he undertook the department of Public Works. He resigned with the rest of his colleagues on October 30th, 1849, to make room for the Hautpoul Ministry. Shortly after M. Léon Faucher's appointment to the Ministry of the Interior, one of the Vice-presidencies of the Assembly becoming thus vacant, the temper of the Chamber having at that time grown more reconciled to Louis Napoleon, M. Lacrosse, whose Bonapartist tendencies were well known, became the candidate of the Club of the Rue des Pyramides for the vacant office, into which he was accordingly voted by the Assembly.

LAMARTINE, ALPHONSE DE, Poet, Orator, Historian, and Politician, was born at Maçon, Oct. 21st, 1790. The original name of his family is Prat, Lamartine being a cognomen adopted by Alphonse in compliance with the will of one of his uncles. His father was major of a cavalry regiment under Louis XVI., and his mother, who fell a victim to a deplorable accident, was the daughter of Madame Des Rois, under-governess of the Princess of Orleans—consequently of the ex-king, Louis Philippe. Thus attached to the ancient order of things, his family was struck by the Revolution; and his most distant recollections refer to a gloomy guard-house, where he was taken to visit his father. The worst days of terror had passed, and M. de Lamartine's family retired into an obscure property at Milly, where his young days glided tranquilly by. He was sent to finish his education at Belly, at the College of the Pères de la Foi. The religious germs implanted by his mother were powerfully developed in this cloister solitude. After leaving college, M. De Lamartine spent some time at Lyons, made a short and a first tour in Italy, and came to Paris in the first days of the Empire. He is said to this epoch to have divided his time between study and dissipation. He acquired the acquaintance of Talma, and read to him the fragments of "Saul," an unpublished tragedy. In 1818 he returned to Italy. On the fall of the Empire he offered his services to the old dynasty, and entered the Gardes du Corps. After the Hundred Days he quitted the service. He now gave *himself* up to poetry, and in 1820 published his "Méditations Poëtiques." At once they established his fame as a

poet, and 45,000 copies of the work were spread over the world. His literary success was the most brilliant of the day. It opened a diplomatic career to him, and he became an *attaché* to the embassy at Florence. From that time to 1825 the poet resided successively at Naples, as secretary of the embassy, some time in London under the same title, and then returned to Tuscany, as *chargé d'affaires*. In the interval his fortune, already considerable by his marriage with an English lady of great beauty and talent, was further increased by the legacy of an opulent uncle. It was under the cloudless Italian sky, and amidst his daily labours, that he composed the "Harmonies Poëtiques." During his residence at Florence, De Lamartine overheard General Pépé utter some words derogatory to the honour of France, and, ardently devoted to the land of his birth, challenged the Italian. A duel ensued, in which the poet was dangerously wounded; but, even while his existence hung by a thread, he wrote a letter to the Grand Duke, imploring that Pépé might not be punished—a request which the sovereign accorded. When the Revolution of 1830 broke out, De Lamartine was in Paris, and had just been named Minister Plenipotentiary to Greece. But the bolt fell, shattering the throne; and before Charles X. departed into exile, the poet-diplomatist paid his last respects and final adieux to that house of Bourbon which he and his father both had served. De Lamartine now felt his position to be a singular one. "By the family and services of my father," said he, in writing to a friend, "I belong to Charles X.; by the family and services of my mother, I belong to the house of Orleans." Louis Philippe offered to confirm him in his Greek embassy, but he refused the proposal, and bade adieu to diplomacy. He now determined to execute a project on which he had long pondered, and which was nothing more nor less than undertaking a voyage to the East. He purchased a ship, fitted her out at Marseilles, and embarked with his family on that poetical pilgrimage which gave occasion to one of the finest books that the world has ever seen. Chateaubriand had pointed out the same path; then came Byron, who died on the Athenian soil; and now followed De Lamartine. At Beyrout he had the misfortune to lose his eldest daughter, a child of great beauty and promise, and whose name was Julia. Her death cast a damp upon the spirits of the

pilgrim, but also elicited some of the most touching and pathetic odes that ever emanated from his pen. Leaving Madame De Lamartine at Beyrout, he travelled throughout Syria and the Holy Land; and he was at Jerusalem when he learnt that he had been elected Deputy for the department of the North. These new duties recalled him to France; but it was not without serious apprehensions that his friends beheld him enter the Chamber. They could not conceive that his imaginative mind would narrow itself to the matter-of-fact discussion of politics; they were at a loss to conjecture how his spirit could descend from its elevation to the squabbles of factions. But they were speedily reassured, for the poet and the statesman ascended the tribune together. "That fine language of his," says Janin, "even in dealing with material interests, remained still a language apart. He won at once the admiration of men by his rapid glance over a subject, and his simple manner of going direct to the point, but, more than all, by that sustained and natural tone of eloquence which, born of the noblest emotions of the heart, swept on, scattering around it in its course the precious treasures of a vast and exalted understanding. De Lamartine soon made incredible progress as an orator—taming himself down from his exaltation, and, by the help of his strong understanding, acquiring the faculty of speaking, when occasion demanded, as simply as the plainest manufacturer or merchant in the Chambers. On entering upon his functions as a deputy, M. De Lamartine embraced the Conservative cause, and took his seat in the ranks headed by M. Guizot. A dissolution of the Chamber in course of time rendering a new election necessary, Maçon, the place of his birth, gave its suffrage in favour of the poet-statesman; and he soon manifested opinions of a more progressive character than those advocated by M. Guizot. In fact, in proportion as the Conservatives became reactionary, so did De Lamartine advance; and this gradual transition on his part—a transition that was destined to bear him from the sphere of Royalism into that of Republicanism—was produced by the influence of great political truths developing themselves to a mind perfectly honest and profoundly sincere. He was no dastard turncoat: such a man is incapable *of consulting* selfish interests or yielding to personal motives. *The longer he* studied the political world, the more deeply

did he become imbued with the idea that the king and his ministers were the enemies, and not the friends, of the people. From the tribune he warned the Government to exhibit a spirit of concession; but finding himself disregarded, he determined to withdraw his support from men whom he now suspected, and whose policy alarmed him. Great was the exultation of the Opposition, when, in 1845, De Lamartine proclaimed his adhesion to the Liberal cause; and never was the new champion of freedom more eloquent than on this occasion. Since that period De Lamartine has advocated the people's interests with zeal, ability, and fervour. With his voice in the tribune, and with his pen in the columns of the "Bien Public"—a Maçon journal which he himself established—he incessantly called upon king and ministers to yield to the national desire for reform; and, finding his efforts disregarded, he took up the historic pen and revised the most precious recollections of the first great revolution. His "History of the Girondins" produced an immense sensation in France, and indubitably had a very large share in preparing the public mind for the subsequent revolution. His eloquent speeches pronounced at the Reform banquets, which he insisted should be held in opposition to the ministry, marked him out as one of the heroes of the new epoch. When the men of February went to him to solicit his concurrence in a scheme for preserving the monarchical institution in the regency of the Duchess of Orleans, Lamartine's language was that of a confirmed republican. He expressed in strong terms his regret that they should have counted on the author of the "Girondins," and added, "You are mistaken, gentlemen: I am not for half measures, which leave the work yet to be begun afresh." On the 24th of February the people were masters of Paris, the Chamber was discussing the regency in the presence of the Comte de Paris and his mother. M. De Lamartine ascended the tribune, and decided the wavering resolution of those present in the following words:—"I have shared in the sentiments of grief which a short time ago agitated this assembly, when it saw the saddest sight that has been offered in human annals—that of a princess presenting herself with her innocent son, and leaving her palace to seek the protection of the Chamber. But if I shared in this respect for a great misfortune, I also share in the solicitude and in

the admiration which must be excited at the sight of a people which has been fighting for the last two days against a perfidious Government, in order to re-establish the empire of order and liberty. (Cries of "Bravo!") Let there be no illusion. (A voice: "We must no longer have any.") Do not think that an acclamation in this Chamber can replace the united will of 35,000,000 of men. Another kind of acclamation must be heard; and whatever may be the Government which this country will adopt, it must be cemented by solid and definite guarantees. How will you do it? How will you find the conditions necessary for such a Government in the floating elements which surround us? By descending into the very depth of the country itself, boldly sounding the great mystery of the right of nations. ("Very good!") Instead of having recourse to subterfuges to maintain one of those fictions which have nothing durable, I ask you, first, to form a Provisional Government, whose duty it would be to stop the flow of blood, and put a stop to the civil war.—(Acclamations from all parts of the Chamber)—a Government which we institute without giving up the rights for our anger, or that of the great mission of establishing peace between citizens—a Government on which we will impose the duty of convoking the whole of the people." At this moment a loud knocking was heard in one of the tribunes, which was immediately filled by a crowd of men bearing muskets. Several of them forced their way to the front seats, and pointed their muskets at the Deputies below. Some of these weapons were also turned in the direction of the royal party. Immediately the persons near the Duchess of Orleans seemed to address her energetically, and a moment after she rose, and, with her sons and the two princes, quitted the Chamber. At the conclusion of this decisive speech, M. Ledru-Rollin read the names of the members of a Provisional Government, including that of Lamartine. The Chamber of Deputies was dissolved, and the Chamber of Peers forbidden to meet; and, what no one could have believed possible twelve hours before, "a powerful monarchy twelve hundred years old, which came in with the long-haired Pharamond and his slow, ponderous bullock-cart, had departed with Louis Philippe, his frizzled *toupée*, and one-horse brougham." The days which followed were passed by the feverish population in great excitement, and their suspicions and susceptibilities

proved of the greatest danger to the young Republic. To M. De Lamartine especially belongs the immortal renown of having saved his country from anarchy the most fearful and bloody. Among the earliest resolutions adopted by the Provisional Government were the abolition of capital punishment for political offences, and the readoption of the tricolor, which had for a while been supplanted by the ill-omened red flag. Both these measures were proposed by Lamartine, and owed their success to his extraordinary eloquence and courage. Five times on Friday the 28th he addressed the people, still fierce with excitement, assembled under the windows of the Hôtel de Ville. The "Presse" has reported one of these addresses:—"It is thus that you are led from calumny to calumny against the men who have devoted themselves, head, heart, and breast, to give you a real Republic—the Republic of all rights, all interests, and all the legitimate rights of the people. Yesterday you asked us to usurp, in the name of the people of Paris, the rights of 35,000,000 of men—to vote them an absolute Republic, instead of a Republic invested with the strength of their consent; that is to say, to make of that Republic, imposed and not consented, the will of a part of the people, instead of the will of the whole nation. To-day you demand from us the red flag instead of the tricolor one. Citizens! for my part, I will never adopt the red flag; and I will explain in a word why I will oppose it with all the strength of my patriotism. It is, citizens, because the tricolor flag has made the tour of the world, under the Republic and the Empire, with our liberties and our glories, and that the red flag has only made the tour of the Champ de Mars, trailed through torrents of the blood of the people." The effect of this oratory was all-powerful. At this part of the speech of M. De Lamartine, in that astonishing sitting of sixty hours, in the midst of an irritated crowd, every one was suddenly affected by his words: hands were clapped and tears shed, and they finished by embracing him, shaking his hands, and bearing him in triumph. In a moment after, fresh masses of people arrived, armed with sabres and bayonets. They knocked at the doors; they filled the *salles*. The cry was, that all was lost, that the people were about to fire on or stifle the members of the Provisional Government. M. De Lamartine was called for. He was supplicated to go once

more, for the last time, to address the people. He was raised on a step of the staircase. The crowd remained for half an hour without consenting to listen to him, vociferating, brandishing arms of all kinds over his head. M. De Lamartine folded his arms, recommenced his address, and finished by softening, appeasing, and caressing the people, and determining them either to withdraw or to become themselves the safeguard of the Provisional Government. Remembering how they had conquered in vain in 1830, the people were resolved that this time they should not be defrauded of the fruits of their victory. Their conduct at the Hôtel de Ville bespoke anything but the docility of men awaiting the decisions of known and tried leaders. The heads of the Republican party (whose tactics, ever since the failure of the attempt made by Barbès in 1839, had been to sit still and watch for such an opportunity as that which presented itself in February) did then come forward at the right moment. But before their powers were confirmed by the popular sanction, they had to stand with muskets and bayonets pointed at their throats, and undergo many a tremendous examination by choleric and suspicious judges. Their lives were never worth five minutes' purchase, until they had put it beyond doubt that the popular cause would be safer in their hands than it had been in those of Lafayette in 1830. It was, indeed, as trying a task as ever devolved upon any set of men, to overcome the extreme distrust that filled the minds of the armed citizens. Often as they were soothed and charmed by Lamartine's eloquence, their suspicions would still return as soon as his voice had ceased to delight their ears. The more the orator had enchanted them, the more enraged they felt at the thought that all his fine words might be nothing but cajolery. Their perplexity would have been in the highest degree comic, had it not threatened to result in a most tragic catastrophe. They insisted that the Provisional Government should, every quarter of an hour, make a report of their proceedings to the people. On one occasion Lamartine came forward and said, "Citizens, I come to impart to you the ideas of the Provisional Government." "We won't have any ideas—down with ideas!" shouted the mob. Another time Lamartine *began thus*: "The first necessity of the Republic is order." "*We won't have* any order—down with order!" exclaimed

the sovereign people. Preserved repeatedly, almost by as many miracles, from death by the weapons of the frantic multitude, Lamartine's life was again put in most imminent peril by the same hand that had fired the fatal shot at the Hôtel des Affaires Etrangères. The high consideration in which Lagrange was held by the Republican party may be inferred from the fact, that to him Lieutenant Aubert Roche, of the 5th Legion of the National Guard, formally transmitted Louis Philippe's act of abdication, which had been put into his hands by an officer of the château. The Provisional Government, though in dread of the well-known incendiary principles of Lagrange, felt compelled to nominate him to some post of eminence, and for two days he figured as Governor of the Hôtel de Ville. At the end of that time he was replaced by another, and no more was heard of Lagrange, who, as creator and father of the Revolution of 1848, had of course attracted considerable attention at first. It appears that, on the Monday following the flight of Louis Philippe, a grand council was held of all the revolutionary leaders assembled to dictate terms *à huis clos* to the Provisional Government. The wise and calm demeanour of Lamartine seems to have irritated in no small degree the boiling, passionate nature of Lagrange, whose excitement was so fierce and terrible that several members of the Assembly prepared to withdraw in alarm. Lamartine alone blanched not, and the *sang froid* and self-possession displayed in his replies only served to increase the savage anger of his opponent all the more. At length, exasperated beyond control, the infuriated Republican, drawing a pistol from his pocket, rushed towards Lamartine, and exclaiming, "You are no true patriot!" pointed the weapon at the head of the minister. "What hinders me from taking thy life now—at once—upon the instant?" shrieked he, with redoubled fury, as the calm glance of Lamartine met his eye. "Your own conscience," coolly replied the minister, "and the utter uselessness of such an outrage; for should I fall, there will still remain my colleagues, who are resolved to a man to meet death rather than submit to violence or return to the senseless anarchy of 1793. The words had the effect of calming for an instant the fury of Lagrange. He dropped the weapon which he held, and turning pale as death, while his eye quailed before the steady gaze of Lamartine, he

muttered between his teeth, "You are not a true Republican, nor yet a true patriot; but I believe you are an honest man." In a few moments Lagrange arose, and, with the most frightful yells and howlings, began to rend the clothes from his back, and to tear the flesh from his bosom, until the blood spurted forth. The excitement of the times had turned his brain, and Lagrange was a raving maniac. He was secured with difficulty, and borne to a lunatic asylum. Lamartine's first act, in his capacity of Foreign Minister, was to send a document explaining the principles which would in future govern the intercourse of France with other nations. The effect of this state-paper—eloquent, temperate, and dignified—was generally to inspire confidence. The same moderate and self-possessed language he held to the various deputations of foreigners who came to seek the aid of the Republic in their projected attempts to revolutionise their respective countries. When the deputation of the Poles waited on the Government on March 26th, M. Godebski, one of the members of the deputation, said, in the course of his address,—"After so many cruel deceptions, the hour is now come when Poland may decide her own fate by her own hand. It is to concur in this work that we are about to march, and we believe that we have a right to hope that you will aid us to perform our duty as soldiers." M. De Lamartine replied,—"France owes you not only her best wishes and her tears; she owes you a moral and eventual support, in return, brave Poles, for that blood which you have shed for her on all the fields of battle in Europe. Be assured that France will repay you all that she owes to you. Only, you must leave to her that which she alone can appoint—the hour, the moment, the mode for giving to you, without aggression, without effusion of blood, the place which is due to you in the list of nations. I will make known to you, if you know them not already, the principles which the Provisional Government has adopted invariably for its foreign policy. France is undoubtedly Republican; she proclaims this to the world; but the Republic is not at war, either openly or secretly, with any of the existing nations or governments, as long as those nations and governments refrain from making war upon it. It will not, therefore, *voluntarily* commit, or suffer to be committed, any act of *aggression* or violence upon the Germanic nations. They

are at this moment labouring to modify by themselves their own internal system of confederation. It would be insensate or treacherous to the freedom of the world to disturb and derange their labours by demonstrations of war, and thus turn into hostility and hatred that pure disposition to promote liberty which makes them incline, with all the best feelings of their hearts, towards us and towards you. The Provisional Government will not allow its policy to be changed in favour of any foreign people, however much we may in our hearts sympathise with it. We love Poland, but we love France better than all the rest of the earth. At this moment we have in our hands her future destiny, and perhaps that of Europe. This is a responsibility which we will relinquish to none but our own nation. Trust, therefore, in her—trust in what has passed in the last thirty days, which have gained more ground for the democracy of France than thirty pitched battles. Do not, therefore, either by arms or by agitation, disturb the great work which Providence is accomplishing, with no other weapons than ideas, for the regeneration and fraternity of all mankind. As Poles, you are justly eager to fly to the land of your fathers, answering the appeal to her noble children from a part of Poland restored to liberty. To this feeling we can only give our applause, and furnish such pacific means as may assist you in returning to your country, and enjoy at Posen the commencement of its independence. We, as Frenchmen, have not only to consider Poland, but the universal policy of Europe. The vast importance of these interests prevents the Provisional Government of the Republic from abdicating in favour of any partial nationality any portion of a nation, however sacred may be the cause it maintains, the responsibility and freedom of its resolutions." To the friends of Italy he said,—"Amongst the glorious names which you have mentioned there is one alone which I reproach you with having called to mind, in consequence of the signification which is commonly attached to the name of Machiavel. (Cries of 'Yes, yes, he is out of place.') Efface henceforth that name from your titles of glory, and substitute for it the pure name of Washington; that is the one which should now be proclaimed—that is the name of modern liberty. It is no longer the name of a politician or of a conqueror that is required—it is that of a man the most disinterested,

the most devoted to the people: that is the man required by liberty. (Cries of 'Yes, yes! Bravo, bravo!') The want of the age is an European Washington; that of the people, peace and liberty." (Loud acclamations.) While Lamartine was thus discharging the duties of his high station with firmness and moderation, the populace, encouraged by unworthy men who had found their way into the Provisional Government, was preparing those disorders which eventuated in the terrible catastrophe of June. Lamartine foresaw the storm, and did his best to provide for it. On the 8th of June, Lamartine used these remarkable words in council:—"We are approaching a crisis. It will not be a riot, or a battle, but a campaign of several days, and of several factions combined. The National Assembly may, perhaps, be forced for a while to quit Paris. We must provide for these contingencies with the energy of a Republican power. The 55,000 men sufficient for Paris would not suffice to bring back the national representation into the capital. I demand, besides a series of decrees of public security, that the Minister of War immediately order up to Paris 20,000 men more." This proposal was unanimously adopted; and thus, a fortnight before the insurrection broke out, the Government had made arrangements to bring 75,000 bayonets to the support of the National Guard of 190,000 men. General Cavaignac carried the orders of the Government into effect as fast as quarters could be provided. Lamartine every day inquired as to the arrival of the troops, and was told, "The orders have been given, and the troops are in movement." Taking into account the effective strength of the Garde Mobile, the Garde Républicaine, and the Gardiens de Paris, the effective number of the garrison in and around the capital at the end of June was 45,000 men. The steps taken by Government to break up the useless Ateliers Nationaux precipitated the struggle, and on the 23d of June the insurrection commenced. Its obstinacy and protracted duration, together with its suppression by Cavaignac, are well known. From this time forward the government of the Republic was administered in a repressive spirit; and the nation, frightened into ultra-Conservatism, hastened to elect a Chamber, the *majority* of which was opposed to the views of Lamartine. *On the 21st of* December Louis Napoleon was installed as

President of the Republic, having been chosen by a majority of 6,000,000; while the candidature of Lamartine, formerly the idol of the people, and who had been returned to the Assembly by six constituencies, could only secure a few thousand votes. From this time forward he devoted himself to the duties of a representative, accepting frankly the choice of the nation, and supporting Louis Napoleon whenever the latter showed an inclination to walk legally in the path of the constitution. He has also been busy with his pen, having written much in the "Bien Public" of Maçon, the "Conseiller du Peuple," and the "Pays." His last permanent work is a "History of the Restoration."

LAMORICIÈRE, JUCHAULT DE, a leading general in the French army of Algiers. In 1830 he was a simple officer. The history of his rapid advancement is to be traced in the bulletins of battles. In February 1848 he was named Commander of the National Guard of Paris, at the moment when Louis Philippe resolved to give up M. Guizot, and was to be seen on every barricade, proclaiming the appointment of the new ministry. Before that epoch he belonged to the moderate reform party in the Chamber. With Cavaignac and others he was incarcerated when Louis Napoleon completed his *coup-d'état*, December 2d, 1851.

LANDOR, WALTER SAVAGE, Author, was born at Warwick in 1775, was educated at Rugby and Trin. Coll. Oxon; was rusticated for the boyish freak of firing a gun in the quadrangle of his college, and never returned to take a degree. He next passed some months in London, when his godfather, General Powell, pressed him to enter the army, for which his resolute character and athletic habits well qualified him. After he had declined this proposition, his father offered him an income of 400*l.* a-year if he would reside in the Temple and study the law, but little more than one-third that sum in the event of a refusal. This proposal he also declined, and retired to Swansea on the smaller allowance, and here wrote the first of his "Imaginary Conversations." At the breaking out of the Spanish war against the French, he raised a few troops at his own expense, and led them to the head-quarters of the Viceroy of Gallicia. For this service he received the thanks of the Supreme Junta.

He returned the documents, with his commission, to Don Pedro Cevalhos, on the subversion of the Constitution by Ferdinand. He was "willing to aid a people in the assertion of its liberties against the antagonist of Europe, but could have nothing to do with a perjurer and traitor." At the beginning of the century he visited Paris, and saw Napoleon made consul for life. In 1806 he sold several estates in Warwickshire, which had been in the possession of his family nearly 700 years, and bought Lauton and Conjoy, in Monmouthshire, on which he expended 7000*l.*, besides building a house at a cost of 8000*l.*; but being exceedingly ill-used by some tenants to whom he had acted most liberally, he was so disgusted, that after driving them off his estate, and levelling his new house to the ground, he left England. In 1814 he married the daughter of J. Thuillier de Malaperte, descendant and representative of the Baron de Neuve Ville. In 1818 he went to reside in Italy for several years, occupying the Palazzo Medici in Florence. Subsequently he purchased the villa of Count Gheradercu at Fiesole, and resided there many years in comparative solitude. He has frequently contributed to the columns of the "Examiner."

LANDSEER, SIR EDWIN, Painter, was born in 1801, and is the son of an engraver of the same name. In the skilful delineation of animals Landseer has probably never been equalled, and is likely to enjoy in this walk of art a long-enduring fame. But he is not a mere painter of quadrupeds, for in the figures that find place in his pictures we find most of the qualities to be expected from the pencil of a first-class artist. Landseer was elected a Royal Academician in 1831, and received the honour of knighthood at the hands of her present Majesty in 1850. His *chefs-d'œuvre* are, "Peace" and "War." Most lovers of art know these two celebrated pictures, a commission from Mr. Vernon, who paid the artist three thousand guineas for them; since which three thousand guineas more were given to Landseer, as a copyright, for permission to engrave them, and another thousand guineas for Mr. Vernon's consent. These fine pictures are to form part of that gallery which Mr. Vernon, with a noble munificence, presented to the nation. "Whoever views these *pictures,*" says a popular writer, "so utterly unlike all that

could be anticipated, will at once feel that it is not mere talent, but genius, that has here achieved a triumph. The 'clever artist,' for a portraiture of War would have given us, in minute detail, all the horrors of a battle-field or of a sacked city. Landseer presents us but the desolated garden and smouldering ruins of a peasant's cottage. Yet how fearful a memorial is this of the blighting and devastating scourge of war! And herein is the consummate judgment of the artist displayed,—in bringing his 'War,' not to 'the field of honour and glory,' but to the home of the peaceful family. This strikes the deepest chord in the group of social and holy sympathies which fill so large a place in the true human heart. What was once an Eden to its dwellers is now a mass of fallen walls and prostrate roof-timbers, of scathed trees and shattered casements, and the broken flower-pots of the window-sill, with their scattered and blighted roses, tell the sad tale of the desolated home. 'The horse and his rider' have alike perished, and the only living thing in the scene is a dying steed, whose slain rider, the trumpeter of a troop of the Blues, his foot across the saddle, lies unregarded to perish amidst the flames. In striking contrast with this black steed, lies a white war-horse, that shall no more 'smell the battle afar off,' and whose dead rider is crushed beneath a fallen beam, never to rise again. The ghastly and livid features of the slain, the dense smoke-clouds which form the fitting atmosphere, illumined by the flames that here and there pierce their gloom,—all combine to make this one of the most powerful realisations ever portrayed. In gazing on it, one heeds not the marvellous delineations of animal life, hitherto deemed one of Landseer's chief excellences; all is absorbed in the deep moral teaching of this eloquent picture. It is quite a relief to turn from this painful scene to its moral antithesis, the picture embodying the idea of 'Peace.' The foreground is upon the cliffs north of Dover, and below the castle, whence can be seen the port below, stretching its line of buildings into the sea; over which, in the dim haze of a summer-cloud on the horizon, may be seen the faint outlines of the distant Calais. The grassy surface of the cliff is covered with herds of goats and flocks of sheep, with their kids and lambs disporting, or quietly basking on the velvet turf. In charge of these is a youthful group—boy, girl, and child—the last holding worsted, which the girl winds from

its hands; while the 'housewife,' a toy-boat, and other little things, show the peaceful pursuits of the family. The disused, dismounted, and rusted cannon lies on the ground, and from its very mouth a playful lamb crops the tender herb. No foe being feared, the shepherd's dog slumbers in the sun. Earth, sky, and ocean, are alike calm in their delicious repose. Scarce a ripple disturbs the sun-lit sea — scarce a cloud dims the brightness of the heavens; and while the former is here and there dotted with the white sails of a peaceful commerce, the latter is the sphere of the sea-bird's flight. These things may seem even trivial in print, but they all combine to give to this delightful picture an indescribable charm, redolent of life in repose. The effect upon the mind — pained and excited by the gloomy horrors of the war-picture — of a quiet contemplation of this lovely scene, is of the most soothing and agreeable kind."

LANSDOWNE, HENRY PETTY FITZ-MAURICE, MARQUIS OF, a Whig Minister of State, was born 1780. He was educated at Westminster, at the University of Edinburgh, and lastly at Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1802 he became Member of Parliament for Calne, and sat for that borough until 1806, when he was returned for the University of Cambridge. In the ministry of "All the Talents," which held its ground only from February 1806 to April 1807, he was Chancellor of the Exchequer. From 1807 to 1809 he sat for the borough of Camelford, when he succeeded his half-brother as Marquis of Lansdowne; and was Home Secretary from August to December 1827; Lord President of the Council in the Whig ministry, from November 1830 to November 1834; from April 1835 to September 1841; and again July 1846. His lordship has been for many years an acknowledged chief of the Whig party, with whose history his public career is identified. As leader of his party in the Upper House, he is favoured by intimate acquaintance with every subject of debate, an ample command of language, and a pleasant equanimity, which the most violent attacks of his adversaries cannot disturb.

LAUDER, ROBERT SCOTT, Painter, was born near Edinburgh in 1803. At an early age he exhibited a strong *leaning towards* the profession in which he was to achieve

eminence, and in 1815 obtained admission as a student to the Trustees' Gallery, Edinburgh, where he made such progress that his friends were glad to promote his progress to London, where he continued his studies in the British Museum. His subsequent career is soon told. On his return to Scotland he painted some pictures displaying so much promise that he was, in 1833, enabled to proceed for further improvement to the Continent, where, after remaining in Italy and elsewhere for five years, he returned to reap the harvest of which the seeds had been sown. Some of his most successful pictures have been delineations of scenes described by Sir Walter Scott.

LAWRENCE, ABBOT, Minister of the United States to St. James's, was born in the state of Massachussets, U.S., Dec. 1792. Having received a liberal education, he went to live at Boston in 1808, and a few years after went into business as an importing merchant, in partnership with his brothers. In 1815 he conceived the design of establishing for his country a manufacturing system, by which the cotton of the southern states might be wrought up for the supply of the home market. With this view he relinquished the importing trade, and invested large sums in calico-factories at Lowell. His design has so far succeeded. Lowell now numbers more than forty thousand inhabitants, with four hundred factories, and will probably long continue to be one of the most rapidly increasing cities of the Union. In November, 1839, Mr. Lawrence was elected to congress, and four years afterwards was appointed one of the commissioners for the settlement of the north-east boundary question. In October, 1849, he arrived in England (which he had several times visited in a commercial capacity) as Minister of the United States. Mr. Lawrence possesses great wealth, which he employs in a manner both judicious and liberal. One of his many acts of munificence is a donation of fifty thousand dollars to Harvard University.

LAYARD, HENRY AUSTEN, Traveller and Author, was born March 5, 1817, and passed his earlier years in Italy, where he imbibed a taste for the arts. When of sufficient age, he was intended for the profession of the law, and commenced in London the required course of study; but soon

forsook it for an occupation more congenial to his tastes. In 1839 he set out with a friend on a course of travel, and visited various points in northern Europe. For a time he resided in Germany, mastering not only the German language itself, but several dialects of the districts along the course of the Danube. He afterwards passed through Albania and Roumelia, and made his way to Constantinople. In that city he was at one period the correspondent of a London daily newspaper. He subsequently travelled through various parts of Asia, and learned the languages of Persia and Arabia. He is said to have studied the habits and manners and dialects of the East so well that he could travel amongst, and be almost mistaken for, an Arab of the Desert. In all his journeyings he contrived to live in a most economical way, eating and drinking cheerfully what the country afforded, however rough it might be. In his wanderings he seems to have lingered with peculiar satisfaction around those spots believed to have been the sites of ancient cities; and when he found himself at Mosul, near the mound of Nimroud, he has described an irresistible desire he felt to examine carefully the spot to which history and tradition point as "the birthplace of the wisdom of the West." A Frenchman, Monsieur Botta, had been making excavations at the cost of his Government, and had found a great number of curious marbles. Layard sighed for the opportunity of making similar discoveries. Returning to Constantinople, he laid his views before our ambassador there, Sir Stratford Canning; and that gentleman, with a degree of liberality that will long redound to his honour, offered in 1845 to bear the cost of excavations at Nimroud. In the autumn of that year Layard set off for Mosul, began forthwith his labours in a spot previously undisturbed, was rewarded by an unexpected amount of success, and ultimately exhumed the numerous wonderful specimens of Assyrian art which now enrich the British Museum. The English Government and the authorities of the British Museum have acted in a niggardly way towards Layard; but, happily, the public have rewarded him, not only by their applause, but by the abundant patronage of his works, large editions of which have been sold.

LEE, SAMUEL, ex-Regius Professor of Hebrew at Cam-

bridge, owes his chief distinction to the fact of the early struggles by which he achieved the honourable post he now enjoys. He was originally a working carpenter, and his transformation into a learned professor has been thus graphically described: — "Whilst earning his bread as a workman, he had no means of extending his knowledge of languages except by exchanging the grammar of one for that of another. But no difficulties or privations could chill the fire of his enthusiasm: his only time of study was after the conclusion of his work in the evening; still he persevered. At length he married; and the expenses of his new manner of life not only obliged him to undertake severer toil, but seemed also to call for the abandonment of his literary pursuits: his evening as well as his morning hours were to be devoted to the hammer and the saw. At this critical juncture, the chest of tools upon which he depended for his subsistence was consumed by fire, and destitution and ruin stared him in the face. His calamity proved his greatest blessing; his loss became known, attracted attention to his character, and friends were not long wanting to assist the patient and struggling scholar. But for the burning of that chest of tools, the Cambridge Professor of Hebrew might at this instant have been mending a window-frame at Bristol, instead of occupying a stall in its cathedral."

LEE, ——, Painter, born in London. It is refreshing to the eyes of the Londoner, on visiting the Exhibition of the Royal Academy, to pause before the healthy and cheerful landscapes of Mr. Lee. Whilst other painters go abroad in search of subjects for their easel, more picturesque or romantic than those which can be found at home, Mr. Lee has confined himself to English scenery, we believe, almost entirely; to English plains and corn-fields, and English rivers, and avenues of English trees, bright with native air and sunshine. It is not so much the art with which he executes his works, as their admirable fidelity to nature, which render them always so pleasant; they are kindly, fresh, and homely, as a sonnet by Crabbe. Not at all of the idealist school, the sight of them yet serves to please and charm, and the eye gazes delighted on the silvery clouds and blue distances, the chequered shades and lights of those favourite lanes in which the artist loves to linger, and the

wide fields and meadows, with the clouds and the light overhead. Those rustic ploughmen and industrious fishermen who people his landscapes, or throw the fly by his shining river-sides, ought all to be people of happy temperament and robust constitution. In Mr. Lee's pictures there always seem to be cheerfulness in the landscape and health in the air.

LEFEVRE, CHARLES SHAW, Speaker of the House of Commons, was born 1794. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, called to the bar in 1819, and returned to Parliament for Downton in 1830. In 1839 he was chosen Speaker of the House, on the retirement of Mr. Abercromby, and in opposition to Mr. Goulburn, the votes being 299 to 317. He was again chosen Speaker in 1841, and in 1847. Before his election to the chair he voted for short parliaments and inquiry into the pension-list. He is a partner in Whitbread's brewery, with the head of which he is connected by marriage. He has been member for North Hampshire since 1831.

LEMON, MARK, Journalist. Editor of "Punch," was born about 1810. Mr. Lemon was for some years a writer for the stage, and at one period donned himself the sock and buskin, winning some success as an actor. Writing was, however, his *forte*, and when the knot of authors who established "Punch" made up their party, Mark Lemon was one. At first he was sub-editor; but on the secession of Mr. Henry Mayhew, Mark Lemon succeeded to the chief post, which he has since retained. He is the author of many dramatic pieces, and is a writer in "Household Words," the "Illustrated News," and other publications.

LEVERRIER, M., who scarcely seven years since was a young and modest man of science, stealthily carrying forward works of enormous extent in the shadow of M. Arago's telescope, and who one day astonished the learned world with the announcement, that in an indicated point of space, and at a specified instant, they would see a star unseen until then,—has been described as the Christopher Columbus *of the heavens*. The discovery here mentioned installed him *as the first* astronomer of France. Honours and places were

poured upon him from all sides, and, with the aid of universal suffrage, the electors of the Manche sent M. Leverrier to the Legislative Assembly. They, doubtless, thought that a man who could so easily read the heavens, would be able to see more clearly than any other into the affairs of the earth.

LEWIS, GEORGE CORNEWALL, a Politician, was born 1806, and educated at Christ Church, Oxford, where he was 1st class in Classics and 2d class in Mathematics, 1828. In 1831 he was called to the bar at the Middle Temple. He was employed on the Commission of Inquiry into the relief of the poor and into the state of the Church in Ireland, 1835, and on the Commission of Inquiry into the affairs of Malta, 1836. On the resignation of his father in 1839, he was appointed a Poor-law Commissioner. He entered Parliament in 1847 as Member for Herefordshire, and was Secretary to the Board of Control from November 1847 to May 1848, when he was appointed Under-Secretary for the Home Department. He has published works on "The Romance Languages," "On the Use and Abuse of Political Terms," "On Local Disturbances and the Irish Church Question," "On the Government of Dependencies," "On the Influence of Authority in Matters of Opinion," &c.

LOCKE, JOSEPH, Engineer, and M.P. for Honiton, born at Attercliffe, near Sheffield, 1805, was educated at Barnsley Grammar School. He obtained employment under Stephenson, the great engineer, and gaining the esteem of that distinguished man, became himself a constructor of railways. Mr. Locke is a member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, a director of the Glasgow, Paisley, and Greenock Railway, and received the Cross of the Legion of Honour in 1845, after constructing a French railway. He possesses land at Honiton, and was first returned for that borough in 1847.

LOCKHART, JOHN GIBSON, Author, and Editor of the "Quarterly Review," is the son of a Scottish clergyman of old family, which enjoys a landed inheritance in Scotland; was educated for the bar, became an Advocate, and walked the Parliament-house for many years. He received, however, but few fees; his income from this source never, it is said,

reaching 50*l.* a-year. Discouraged in this pursuit, for which he early conceived a dislike, he applied himself to literary labour. He contributed to "Blackwood's Magazine" the articles known as "Peter's Letters to his Kinsfolk," and other papers; and in the year 1818 was introduced by Hogg to Sir Walter Scott, at the request of the latter. The intimacy thus commenced was crowned by the union of Lockhart with a daughter of the great novelist. His chief works are, a "Life of Burns;" "Memoirs of Sir Walter Scott;" "Valerius, a Roman Story;" "Reginald Dalton;" "Adam Blair;" "Passages in the Life of Gilbert Earle;" and some admired translations of ancient Spanish ballads. The recommendation of his father-in-law procured him the editorship of the "Quarterly Review," which he continues to conduct. He is also Auditor of the Duchy of Cornwall, a post which yields a revenue of about 300*l.* a-year. He has a son in the army, who is the present representative of the family of Sir Walter Scott. Lockhart has for some years past resided in the Regent's Park.

LŒWESTEIN, GENERAL, a French officer appointed by Louis Napoleon to the command of the National Guard of Paris on the eve of the *coup d'état* of December 2d. General Lœwestein entered the army in 1805, in the 3d Dragoons; in 1807 he was made lieutenant in the 2d Cuirassiers; in 1810 he was captain and aide-de-camp of Marshal Sebastiani, then commanding in Spain; in 1812 he was *chef-d'escadron;* in 1813, officer of the Legion of Honour; in 1814, colonel at the battle of Arcis-sur-Aube; and in 1815, colonel of the 3d Chasseurs. During the first period of his military life General Lœwestein was present at almost all the important battles, from Jena to Waterloo, during the campaigns of Prussia, Poland, Spain, Russia, Saxony, France, and Belgium. He was placed on the order of the army at the battle of Almonacid, and the capture of Malaga. In 1815 his career was interrupted. As colonel, at twenty-six, he was one of those who resigned from the army of the Loire. In 1830 he re-entered the service, through the entreaties of Marshal Gerard, as colonel of the 6th Hussars. In 1831 he was named general of brigade, and commander of the Legion *of Honour.* He was then the oldest officer of the Legion of *Honour in the* cavalry. In 1831 and 1832 he commanded

the brigade of the advanced guard, under the orders of Marshal Gerard. In 1841 he was general of division; and in 1846 a grand officer of the Legion of Honour. In 1848 he was struck out by the Provisional Government from the *cádres* of the army, although he had not attained the age for retiring. He thus owed the Revolution a grudge, which he paid off on the 2d of December.

LONDON, CHARLES JAMES BLOMFIELD, BISHOP OF, born 1786. Having been educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, he was third wrangler and senior medallist in 1808, and subsequently a Fellow of his college. After taking orders, he became successively Archdeacon of Colchester and Rector of St. Botolph, Bishopsgate, and was consecrated Bishop of Chester in 1824, from which see he was translated to that of London in 1828. Bishop Blomfield is provincial Dean of Canterbury, Dean of the Chapels Royal, Rector of Sion College, the East India College, and Harrow School; a Governor of King's College, London, and a Commissioner on the State of the Bishoprics. His lordship is a sound scholar and a man of elegant manners. He is known to the world of letters by editions of "Æschylus," and "Callimachus;" he is also author of a "Manual of Family Prayers;" "Lectures on the Acts of the Apostles;" "Sermons at St. Botolph, Bishopsgate," &c. He is one of the original supporters of the New Poor-law, and had a principal hand in establishing the Ecclesiastical Commission. He has the patronage of ninety livings, exclusively of much of that of the newly-erected churches. The annual value of his see is 11,700*l.* Bishop Blomfield is a firm supporter of High Church doctrines; he has, with Henry of Exeter, been the most strenuous assertor of the tenet of baptismal regeneration; was one of the prelates who protested against the elevation of the present Bishop of Hereford, and, as a member of the Privy Council, dissented from the judgment delivered by Lord Redesdale in the Gorham case. His lordship has, however, always evidenced a shrewd regard for public opinion in the time, place, and manner of asserting his favourite ideas.

LONGFELLOW, HENRY WADSWORTH, an American Poet, is the son of the Hon. Stephen Longfellow, of Portland, and was born in that city 27th February, 1807. At

the early age of fourteen he entered Bowdoin College, and at the close of the usual period of four years took his degree with high honours. For a few months in 1825 he was a law student in the office of his father, but being offered a professorship of modern languages in Bowdoin College, he was relieved from an uncongenial pursuit to visit Europe and prepare for the discharge of his new duties. He accordingly left home, and passed three years and a half travelling or residing in France, Italy, Spain, Germany, Holland, and England. He returned to America in 1829, and immediately entered upon the duties of his office. He speedily became a great favourite with the students, and when not engaged in the work of instruction, or in severer studies, he occupied himself in the construction of those beautiful poems which have made his name so grateful in England, as well as in his native land. When, in 1835, Mr. George Ticknor resigned his professorship of modern languages and the belles-lettres at Cambridge, the oldest and most distinguished of American universities, there was no hesitation in calling to the vacant post Mr. Longfellow, who had already acquired something of a veteran's fame, though but twenty-eight years of age. He now resigned his professorship at Bowdoin College, and again went abroad, to become more thoroughly acquainted with the languages and literature of Northern Europe. He passed more than a year in Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and Switzerland, and returning to America in the autumn of 1836 entered immediately upon his duties at Cambridge, except during a brief visit to Europe, made for the restoration of his health in 1842. As has already been intimated, Longfellow commenced his literary career at an early age. While yet an undergraduate he wrote many tasteful and carefully-finished poems for the "United States' Literary Gazette," and before he was twenty contributed some valuable criticisms to the "North American Review." In 1833 he published his translation from the Spanish of the celebrated poem of Don José Maurique on the death of his father, together with an introductory essay on Spanish poetry; in 1835 his "Outre-Mer;" in 1839, "Hyperion," a romance; in 1840, "Voices of the Night," his first collection of poems; in 1841, "Ballads and other Poems;" in 1842, "The Spanish Student," a play; in 1843, "*Poems on Slavery;*" and in 1845, his "Poets and Poetry

of Europe." His most recent production is "The Golden Legend," published in 1851. Longfellow's poems have, together with great picturesque and dramatic beauty, a simplicity and truth to nature which commend them alike to the rudest and the most cultivated. The tenderness and melancholy pleasure with which, in many of his works, he dwells upon a poetical association, or an historical incident, have, however, proved a stumbling-block to many of his countrymen, who demand more freshness, and an onward direction of the poet's eye.

LOVER, SAMUEL, Author and Artist, was born in Dublin. His first literary effort that attracted attention was a series of "Legends and Stories of Ireland," in which one, entitled "The Gridiron," displayed so much humour as to secure much attention to its author. Lover painted, however, as well as wrote, and the exhibition of one of his miniatures in the Royal Academy gave promise of employment in London, and to London he came, and soon afterwards added to his popularity by writing some very attractive songs, the two best being "The Angel's Whisper" and "Rory O'More." His next effort was a novel in three volumes, named after his successful ditty, "Rory O'More;" and that the theme might be thoroughly exhausted, he dramatised the story, the chief character in this phase of Rory being supported by Power. "Molly Bawn" as a song, and "Handy Andy" as a novel," soon added to his reputation. "Treasure Trove" was the title of another work, after the production of which our versatile author, artist, dramatist, lyrical poet, tried a new mode of pleasing the public by a series of entertainments, in which—like a humble modern Homer—he assayed to sing his own ditties. The public, generally generous to their favourites, are understood to have received his efforts kindly.

LYELL, SIR CHARLES, Geologist, is the eldest son of Charles Lyell, Esq., of Kinnordy, county Forfar, and was born 1797. After receiving an education at Exeter College, Oxford, he was called to the bar, but occupied himself with the mysteries of geology in preference to those of the law. He was elected President of the Geological Society in 1836. His chief works are, "Principles of Geology;" "Elements of

Geology," and "Travels in North America." He is also the author of numerous papers in scientific journals, and is still an active student of the science to which he has devoted his days. He was knighted in 1848.

LYNDHURST, JOHN SINGLETON COPLEY, LORD, ex-Chancellor of England, is by birth an American, having been born at Boston, United States, in 1772. His father was Copley, the painter of the picture in the National Gallery, "the Death of Chatham." The future chancellor, having been brought by his father to England, studied the law, was called to the bar in 1804, and warmly exhibited a Radical tone of politics, which, as he progressed, changed, however, to views of a totally opposite character. He rose in the law, and in 1826 was appointed Master of the Rolls, and Lord Chancellor on the retirement of Lord Eldon, in the following year, when he was raised to the peerage. Resigning the great seal, 1830, his lordship filled the office of Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer till 1834, when he resumed the seals for another year; again resigned; and in 1841 was a third time appointed Lord Chancellor, which high office he retained till 1846. He is a Privy Councillor, High Steward of the University of Cambridge, a Governor of the Charterhouse, D.C.L. and F.R.S. He selected for his second wife a daughter of Lewis Goldsmith, a man well known in the history of the press.

M.

MACAULAY, THOMAS BABINGTON, Poet, Historian, Essayist, and Politician, born in 1800, is the son of Zachary Macaulay, a wealthy African merchant, who, against his interests, was an energetic advocate for the abolition of slavery in the colonies. The younger Macaulay studied at Trinity College, Cambridge, and distinguished himself there by gaining some of the highest honours the university could bestow. He took his bachelor's degree in 1822, and obtained a fellowship at the October competition *open to the* graduates of Trinity. On leaving Cambridge,

he studied at Lincoln's Inn, and was called to the bar by that society in 1826. In the same year his essay on Milton appeared in the "Edinburgh Review," the first of the series, which have rendered him one of the most distinguished supports and ornaments of that work. By the Whig Government he was made a Commissioner of Bankrupts, and shortly did good service to his party in the House of Commons, to which he was returned by the constituency of Calne in the reformed parliament of 1832. In 1834 he was elected member for Leeds, at which time he was Secretary to the India Board. In the same year he resigned his appointment, with his seat, to proceed to India as member of the Supreme Council of Calcutta, a lucrative post, which he held for three years. In 1838 he returned to England, and shortly afterwards was elected member for Edinburgh. In the general election of 1847, Mr. Macaulay was rejected by that constituency in favour of Mr. Cowan, whose theological leanings were more distinctly marked than those of his rival. Mr. Macaulay's high literary capacity made itself apparent during his collegiate days, when he had already written that spirited ballad, "The War of the League." His "Lays of Ancient Rome," founded on the heroic and romantic incidents related by Livy, are remarkable for their striking pictures of life and manners, the abrupt energy of their style, and the rapid progress of their narrative. Macaulay is, however, best known by his critical and historical essays contributed to the "Edinburgh Review," which have been collected in several forms, both in this country and in America, and have enjoyed a high degree of popularity. The field chosen by the author is of the widest range: his success is, however, most marked in the department of literary and historical criticism. Here his vast erudition, his command of details, and brilliant style, place him above every rival. On this subject a recent writer says, "In authorship there is a school exactly analogous to the class of painters who excel principally in effect. Macaulay is the Tintoretto of historians. His touch is singularly free, his colour is rich and deep, and his mind is never fatigued. There is in all that comes from his pen a remarkable facility of illustration, if he rarely produces original thoughts or profound views of life. A more brilliant and interesting writer of English prose could not be named. Macaulay's

greatest distinction, considered critically, is found in his invention of a new prose style, which is decidedly his own, whatever be its merits or its faults. Without violating the properties of the English tongue, Macaulay has added some peculiar graces to his style, which give it originality, and increase, by the charm of novelty, the power of his effect. Of all English writers, Macaulay is the most Italianised. If Carlyle thinks in German, Macaulay may be said to compose according to Italian notions of grace. His style has the faults along with the merits of the genius of the Italian tongue. Sentences are softened and lengthened for the beauty of the cadences, as if the sound were fully of as much consequence as the sense. He employs, as the Italians do, too many diminutives and superlatives; and if his style be more musical than his contemporaries, it is much less muscular and nervous than many of them. The merits of Macaulay are the vigour of his manner, his picturesque brilliancy of effect, his airy, animated, and splendid diction. His defects are the profusion of his ornaments, his composition being spangled all over with sparkling sentences and vivid points, and his constant use of literary artifice. In morals Macaulay is a conventionalist. There is no profound originality of conception in his views of life. His morality is of that kind current in a select London club-house. He wants classic simplicity of personal character, and a lofty moral purpose. Hence his rhetoric is captivating, while his thinking is commonplace. Too often, when he attempts to be profound, he *thinks by proxy*, and clothes in his own words some idea of an unnamed intellect, more sagacious and penetrating than his own. The critic who would class Macaulay with Hume or Gibbon would rank Tintoretto with Angelo and Raphael." Mr. Macaulay's "History of England" is marked by all the peculiarities of his writing, which the essays have made familiar. It has had a popularity far beyond any publication of modern times, having in a few weeks run through several large editions. The parliamentary career of the author disappointed the expectations of his friends. On this subject an able journalist wrote in the "Spectator," on Macaulay's retirement from public life: —"His spoken essays have deceived us all: extorting admiration for their literary merits, they reflected credit on the *party in whose* behalf they were uttered; the "Edinburgh

Review" was in presence, delivered orally, in sheets, *pro re nata;* and the special publication made no small sensation in club and drawing-room. But how little weight it had! how little it told upon the debate, the vote, the relations of parties, the public without! Because the effect of literature on the English mind is seldom direct, always cumulative; and Mr. Macaulay's best effusions were always literature. Nay, it was a breach of privilege for literature to exceed its province and intrude into the legislature. Dull voting-machines resented the being outdone by a penman, and would fain have voted that the "stranger" be ordered to withdraw: only that, in violation of the division of employments, he was both writer and senator. Ministries, no doubt, were hampered by the exigencies of a colleague who was bound, even in these degenerate days, 'to profess the noblest sentiments, and act up to the sentiments he professes,' with some eye at least to keeping up appearances that would accord with the dignity of history. A perverse dislike to confess the influence of literature in the presence of its personages, has induced our parliament to thwart its literary members. To be the titled author of a staid book on the shelves is a grace allowed; but to be a popular author, read everywhere, is to be ostracised." So far the journalist. The author whom we first quoted, however, places the reasons of this failure in a different light. "In parliament," he says, "there was the same want of moral earnestness in the speeches of Macaulay as there is in his brilliant writings. The rhetorician never rose into the orator. He lectured on the subject in a general, formal, and sonorous style; but he never crushed an adversary by his logic, or carried away his audience like Plunket or Canning."

M'CULLAGH, WILLIAM TORRENS, Politician and Author, was born in October 1813, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, where in 1833 he took his degree. He was called to the bar in 1836. In 1841 he published, in Dublin, his work on the "Use and Study of History;" and in 1846, in London, the "Industrial History of Free Nations." In 1847 he entered Parliament for Dundalk, and speedily made himself known as an instructive speaker, especially upon Irish questions.

M'CULLOCH, J. R., Writer on Political Economy, and kindred subjects, was born in Scotland about 1790. His first prominent literary position was as editor of "The Scotsman," Edinburgh newspaper. He is the author of "Discourses on Political Economy;" "Dictionary of Commerce;" "Policy and probable Consequences of a Repeal of the Corn Laws;" "Influence of the East India Company's Monopoly on Tea;" "Historical Sketch of the Bank;" "Statistical Account of the British Empire;" "Geographical Dictionary;" "Observations on Duties on Sea-borne Coals;" "Circumstances which determine the Rate of Wages;" "Operation of Duties on Paper;" "Treatise on Taxation and the Funding System;" the "Literature of Political Economy." Mr. M'Culloch is a member of the Institute of France, occupies a post in the Government Stationary Office, and also enjoys a pension of 200*l.* a-year.

MACINTOSH, J. L., Journalist, Editor of the "Morning Post." Mr. Macintosh is one of the senior members of the body of London journalists, and his pen has done good service in the cause of the aristocratic section of the community, to whom the "Morning Post" has long especially addressed itself.

MACKAY, CHARLES, Poet and Journalist, born in Perth in 1812, gained a valuable portion of his education in Belgium, where, in 1830, he was a witness of the startling events of the Revolution there. In 1834 he published a small volume of poems, which was the means of introducing him to the notice of John Black, the editor of the "Morning Chronicle," through whose instrumentality he became connected with that paper. After remaining on the "Morning Chronicle" for about nine years, during which time he published a volume of poems, the principal of which is "The Hope of the World," he became editor of the "Glasgow Argus," entering upon his duties in September 1844. He relinquished the conduct of that paper at the general election in 1847, in consequence of a schism in the liberal party, relative to the choice of a candidate to represent the city in the House of Commons. In 1846, the Glasgow University conferred the title of Doctor of Laws upon Mr. Mackay, by unanimous vote. *His first prose* work of fiction, "Longbeard, Lord of London,"

a romance, was produced in 1841. "The Thames and its Tributaries" was his next production. In 1842 he edited an octavo edition of the "Life of General Mackay of Scowry, Commander-in-chief of the Forces in Scotland in 1689, by the late John Mackay of Rockfield, the General's representative in the male line." This work was shortly afterwards followed by "Memoirs of Extraordinary Popular Delusions," and "The Scenery and Poetry of the English Lakes." "The Salamandrine; or, Love and Immortality"—Dr. Mackay's most ambitious performance—followed next. It is divided into seven cantos, and describes the love of a mortal for a female spirit of fire. In 1845 he published another collection of poems, entitled "Legends of the Isles, and other Poems." Upon the appearance of the "Daily News," Dr. Mackay wrote poems under the title of "Voices from the Crowd," all of which, with additions, were published under that name in a separate form, and sold largely. In addition to these, Dr. Mackay has published "Voices from the Mountains," in 1846, and "Town Lyrics," in 1847, each containing poems on the same model; and "Egeria," published in 1850. He writes the chief leading articles for the "Illustrated London News."

MACLISE, DANIEL, Artist, born at Dublin, January 5, 1811. In youth he was placed in the establishment of Mr. Newenham, the banker of Cork, his friends not venturing to commit him to the career of an artist, for which he had exhibited great aptitude and a strong predilection. At the age of sixteen he left the bank, and fairly committed himself to artistic studies. His first money is said to have been earned by drawing the portraits of all the officers of the 14th Light Dragoons. He afterwards made a pedestrian tour through Wicklow, sketching the scenery by which he passed. In the course of this excursion he was benighted, and had to sleep one night on the mountains, with stones for a bed and heather for a coverlet. He returned the bearer of a collection of landscapes, drawings, and characteristic sketches of the Irish peasantry. Of the versatility of his talents and the geniality of his humour many amusing illustrations are preserved. It is related, that upon one occasion, when a masquerade had been got up for a charitable society, he added considerably to the funds by personating an itinerant artist,

throwing off on the spot grotesque sketches of the characters present, which were rapidly sold on the spot for the benefit of the institution. For several years he studied anatomy under Dr. Woodroffe, proceeding so far in his studies as to actual dissection. In 1828 he came to London, presented a trial drawing at the Royal Academy, Somerset House, and was admitted. In the same year he gained Sir Thomas Lawrence's medal in the Antique School of the Academy, and was admitted into the Life School, in which he also obtained the medal. During this time he drew sketches innumerable, many of which, being those of well-known characters, appeared in "Fraser's Magazine." In the summer of 1830 he went to Paris, and studied in the Louvre and Luxembourg galleries. In 1831 he made his first public attempt in historical painting, and won the gold medal of the Academy by his "Choice of Hercules." The Academy's pension for enabling artists to study three years in Italy was now at his command, but he preferred to remain in England. In 1832 he revisited Cork, returned to London, and painted his "All-hallow Eve," exhibited in the next year with his "Love Adventure of Francis I. with Diana of Poictiers." In 1834 he produced "The Installation of Captain Rock," and illustrated Bulwer's "Pilgrims of the Rhine." In 1835 appeared "The Chivalric Vow of the Ladies and the Peacock," in which what may be called the highly poetical character of his style first became prominent. From this time forward his works were very numerous. The following are among the chief of them: "Interview between Charles I. and Cromwell," "Macbeth and the Witches," 1836; "Salvator Rosa painting Massaniello," "Olivia dressing Moses for the Fair," 1838; "Robin Hood and Richard Cœur de Lion in the Greenwood," "Gil Blas and the Parasite," "Malvolio smiling on Olivia," 1839; "The Banquet Scene in "Macbeth," and "Gil Blas dressing *en cavalier*," 1840; "The Knight and Lady," "Portrait of Boz," and "The Sleeping Beauty," 1841; "The Play Scene in Hamlet," "Hunt the Slipper," and "The Origin of the Harp," 1842; "The Actresses' Reception of the Author," from Gil Blas, and a "View of Buckingham Palace," in 1843; "Scenes from Comus," "A Girl with Parrot," "A Scene from Undine," for her Majesty, in the following year. Besides these and minor paintings, Maclise has *produced* numberless sketches for Annuals, Keepsakes, Amu-

lets, &c., of which no account can be taken. His last great work was a cartoon of the "Spirit of Chivalry," to be executed in fresco in the House of Lords. Maclise was elected Royal Academician in 1840.

MACREADY, WILLIAM CHARLES, Tragedian, was born in London, March 3d, 1793. His father was the manager of a provincial company, and lessee of several theatres; but, desiring a different profession for his son, sent the future actor to Rugby. At this celebrated school he acquired considerable reputation by his classical attainments, and gave promise of future celebrity at the bar, for which he was at that time destined by his parents. In his seventeenth year, while expecting to proceed to the University of Oxford, his father's affairs became deeply embarrassed. It is stated that offers of assistance, such as would have enabled the younger Macready to continue his academical career, irrespective of the family misfortunes, were at this time made by friends, but that they were declined. Be this as it may, the son now resolved to aid his father with those talents which the latter had made sacrifices to improve. He exchanged the quiet of the school for the excitement of the theatre, and in June 1810 made his first appearance at Birmingham in the character of Romeo. Having industry as well as talents, he was soon recognised as a valuable actor, and saw his exertions in behalf of his father crowned with success. Till Christmas 1814, Mr. Macready remained with his father's company as a leading actor and stage-director, performing with great applause at many of the chief towns of the midland and northern counties. In the two following years he visited the capitals of Ireland and Scotland, increasing his reputation, which was now thought sufficient to warrant him in making his appearance on the London stage. On the 16th of September, 1816, he accordingly came before a Covent Garden audience as Orestes in the "Distressed Mother." His *début* caused much excitement in the theatrical world, and Kean, among other eminent actors, witnessed and applauded his performance. At the conclusion of the tragedy of the "Distressed Mother," the announcement of Macready's reappearance was hailed with three rounds of applause. Notwithstanding this favourable *début*, Macready had a hard battle to fight for many years. Kean, Kemble, and Young

were the great favourites of the town; and the monopoly which limited the presentation of Shakspeare's dramas to the two patent theatres narrowed the arena of competition. Clubs were formed, the bond of which was an engagement to prevent the intrusion of new-comers upon what was considered the domain of established favourites. Under these circumstances, he was compelled to refrain from assuming a number of Shakspearian characters in which he has since become a favourite with the public. His Virginius, Mirandola, and Rob Roy, were considered to be very masterly personations. After his triumph in the first, he speedily took his place as a Shakspearian actor. On removing from Covent Garden to Drury Lane, he became the original representative of the respective heroes of Mr. Sheridan Knowles's Caius Gracchus and William Tell. He reappeared at Drury Lane in 1826, and from that time to the present has continued to hold that high rank in public estimation which he has never forfeited. Mr. Macready has undertaken in turn the management of the two patent theatres, and sustained considerable pecuniary injury in his endeavour to elevate the character of dramatic amusements. In 1826 he went to America, and in 1828 visited Paris, where he was enthusiastically received. In 1849 he paid a second visit to New York, where the jealousy of Forrest, the American actor, led to a riot, in which the Aston Opera-house, where Macready was performing, was attacked by the mob, and the English actor only escaped with his life. The military were called out, and, to suppress the disturbances, fired and killed twenty-two men on the spot, besides wounding thirty others, some of whom subsequently died of their wounds. Mr. Macready shortly afterwards returned to England, where he was welcomed by his friends, and in the autumn of the following year took his leave of the stage, when a dinner was given to him at the Hall of Commerce, London, attended by all the chief literary notables of the day.

MAHONEY, FRANCIS, Journalist and Author, one of the editors of "The Globe" newspaper, was born in Ireland about 1800. Educated for the Romish Church, he in due time became a priest; but, judging from his subsequent writings, he found in that profession many things not quite consonant with his belief in true Christianity. Uniting in an eminent

degree ripe scholarship, wit, a ready pen, and a fluent style, he was, under the *nom de plume* of "Father Prout," gladly enrolled amongst the band of able men who some years ago, —in the hey-day of Dr. Maginn,—made "Fraser's Magazine" one of the most remarkable publications of that day. He has written several books, but, like every true journalist, his chief literary labours have been devoted to, and his chief influence has been exerted in, the columns of newspapers—those daily offerings to the daily mental wants of modern civilised life. He was for some time the Roman correspondent of the "Daily News," contributing to the columns of that journal a series of articles full of good feeling, sparkling wit, and sound scholarship.

MALTBY, EDWARD, BISHOP OF DURHAM, translated 1836. University Honours, — Pembroke College: Browne's (Greek and Epigrams) Medallist, 1790; Browne's (Greek) Medallist, 1791; Craven Scholar, 8th Wrangler and Senior Chancellor's Medallist, 1792; M.A. (by royal mandate) 1794; B.D. 1801; D.D. 1806. His former preferments were, —Vicarage of Buckden, Hunts; Chaplaincy to the Bishop of Lincoln; Prebendary of Lincoln; Preacher at Lincoln's Inn; consecrated Bishop of Chichester, 1831. His published works are,—"Truth of the Christian Religion," "Sermons," "Sermons at Lincoln's Inn," "Psalms and Hymns," Editor of Morell's "Lexicon Græco-Prosodiacum," &c.

MARRAST, ARMAND, French Journalist, and one of the chief actors in the Revolution of 1848, was born at Bayonne in 1801. He held for some time in his younger days the Professorhip of Rhetoric in the College of Puy-le-Voy; but making his way to Paris in 1828, he became a journalist, and ultimately rose to be one of the editors of "The National." Under Louis Philippe, he endured his full share of the persecutions and imprisonments heaped upon the press; but these only seemed to make him a more thorough Republican than before; and when the French sent the Citizen King adrift, Marrast was one of the men who formed the Provisional Government. He was appointed to draw up the report on the Constitution, and was named Mayor of Paris, in which character he gave a series of balls and entertainments, which greatly contributed to render the revolutionary government

acceptable to the Parisians. He was subsequently appointed President of the Assembly; but when Louis Napoleon and the new and more Conservative Assembly arose in France, Marrast gave place to Dupin. Since that time, he has suffered from ill health. Marrast, like Lamartine, has an English wife.

MARTIN, JOHN, Painter, was born at Haydon Bridge, Northumberland, in 1789. After many early difficulties he came to London and soon found patrons, his pictures being unlike those of all his contemporaries. His first remarkable work was "Sadok in Search of the Waters of Oblivion," and this was followed by others that have enjoyed in their time a still wider reputation: "Joshua commanding the Sun to stand still;" "Belshazzar's Feast;" "the Destruction of Babylon;" and "the Deluge." All these pictures have been engraved by the author himself. Martin's paintings certainly stand alone in their peculiar walk, and evince great powers of a startling kind. They are eminently mental productions.

MATHEW, FATHER THEOBALD, a Temperance Reformer, was born at Thomastown, Oct. 10, 1790. Having lost his parents early, he was adopted by his aunt, a lady of some means, and, at the age of thirteen, placed at the lay-academy of Kilkenny. Here he remained for seven years, when, having a desire to enter the Church, he proceeded to Maynooth, and four years afterwards was ordained at Dublin. Before this period he had taken religious vows as a Capuchin, and he now entered upon his benevolent labours among the Irish poor, residing for some time at Cork. The pictures of misery produced by drunkenness, constantly presented to his sight among the Irish poor, deeply affected his mind, and he long revolved various plans for staying the moral plague. Meanwhile his arduous exertions as a minister of religion, in comforting the poor and endeavouring to raise their condition, were daily strengthening his reputation. At length he determined to make the pledge of total abstinence from all intoxicating drinks the lever with which to raise his degraded countrymen, and he commenced holding meetings, at first at Cork, where, twice a-week, he addressed all comers upon the cause of their woes, the whisky-bottle, and its remedy, the pledge. Acting upon an excit-

able people, already disposed to grateful attention to his counsels, he at once entered upon a career of surprising success, and hundreds of the most hardened drunkards enrolled themselves in his total-abstinence society. The prestige and success now combining with the lustre of his personal character, rendered him an object of wondering veneration, and the pledge received from his hands became of almost sacramental virtue. He set out on a journey from town to town, and his fame everywhere preceding him, his progress resembled a triumphal march. Tens of thousands welcomed him, the authorities paid him honour, and the pledge, with his blessing, was universally demanded. At Nenagh he administered the pledge to 20,000 persons in one day; at Galway, 100,000 received it in two days; between Galway and Loughrea, and on the road to Portumna, between 180,000 and 200,000 persons vowed to drink no more of the intoxicating cup. Having visited every considerable town of Ireland, he came to England on a like errand, and was received with joy. He has since visited the United States, whence he returned in the autumn of 1851. Father Mathew is descended of good family; his brother was proprietor of a large distillery when Theobald entered upon his work of reform. He supported him with his purse while he could, but the good work ruined his trade, and he has been reduced to bankruptcy. Father Mathew himself has been brought to poverty and into debt by his benevolent exertions. To meet his wants and pay a tribute to his worth, Government settled upon him an annuity of 300*l.*, a sum which, it is said, is only sufficient to pay the annual premium of an insurance policy held by his creditors as a security for his debts.

MAULE, FOX, a Cabinet-Minister, eldest son of Lord Panmure, was born April 22, 1801, and educated at the Charterhouse School. In June, 1819, he entered the army as an ensign in the 79th Highlanders, served in Canada upon the staff of the Earl of Dalhousie, his uncle, from 1822 to 1828, and in 1831 retired from the army with captain's rank. He entered into political life by taking an active part in the election-contests in the county of Perth, in 1832 and 1834. Having thus been brought under the notice of that constituency, he became a candidate for parliamentary honours when Sir Robert Peel dissolved the House of Com-

mons in 1835: he contested Perthshire with Sir George Murray, Master-general of the Ordnance, and triumphed by a majority of 100. On the formation of the Melbourne cabinet, in 1835, Maule was made Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department. At the general election on the accession of her present majesty he was beaten at Perth by Lord Stormont, but, retaining his office, succeeded Sir A. L. Hay, in February 1838, as member for the Elgin burghs. In 1841 he was again returned for Perth, and in the same year accepted the Vice-Presidency of the Board of Trade. When the Auchterarder case and the question of the spiritual independence of the Scottish Church were before Parliament, Maule embraced with ardour the cause of the anti-Erastian party, vindicated their claims, and warned the House not to necessitate that secession which he truly predicted as the result of such a line of conduct; and when the men most distinguished for zeal and piety left the Establishment, he went out with them to form the Free Church of Scotland, of which he is an active member.

MAZZINI, JOSEPH, the chief of the democratic party of Italy, was born in the year 1809, at Genoa, where his father was a medical practitioner, and during the latter years of his life a university professor of his science. Joseph was educated for the law at the same university. From early youth he had groaned for his country, the sport of European despotism, and resolved to do what he could to awaken his fellow-men to political life. He accordingly established the "Genoa Indicator," in which, under the veil of literary discussion, he ventured on questions touching the future of Italy. The Italian governments, lately troubled by Carbonarism, were then united in a league against liberal opinions. Mazzini was no Carbonaro, he hated secret societies, but the authorities had determined to allow him no voice, and his "Indicator" was suppressed. He then established the "Indicator of Livourne," but was not suffered to continue his labours, for before he had finished his studies he was arrested on suspicion of being connected with Carbonarism; and though the judicial functionary before whom he was brought declared that nothing was proved against *him,* he was carried off to a fortress at some distance from *the town, and* was only released in order to be shipped off

into exile. He then took up his abode at Marseilles, where he became the founder of "La Giovine Italia," and conducted the journal of that name, devoted to the cause of the unity and independence of Italy, and a republican form of government. The rule of Louis-Philippe did not allow Mazzini to remain long in France, and on the application of the Sardinian ambassador he was ordered to quit the French territory. For nearly twelve months he succeeded in evading the vigilance of the police, during the whole of which time he never went out, except on two occasions, in disguise, and brought out his journal, which was easily distributed from Marseilles into Italy. He at length was obliged to fly, and in 1831 found himself in Switzerland. There he organised the expedition into Savoy, which failed through Ramorino, to whom the military command was given. This was the general whose negligence, or treachery, was so fatal to the Sardinian army, when, in the revolutionary cause, it last opposed Radetzky, for which he was shot by sentence of court-martial. Mazzini was now arrested, tried by court-martial, and sentenced to imprisonment in the fortress of Savone, where he was incarcerated for six months, and then released upon promising not to reappear in the Sardinian States. He now retired to Marseilles, and founded the society called "Young Italy," pointing openly in his writings to the republican form of government as that to be established in his country. In 1844, after a silence only broken by occasional publication in the English papers and magazines, he established in London a journal called "Apostolato Populare." In 1846 his name was brought prominently before the British public, in consequence of the disclosure of a practice of opening the letters of refugees in the London post-office by the English government at the request of foreign ambassadors,—a practice of which Mazzini was a victim. It was Sir James Graham who, in forgetfulness alike of his character of a British minister and the honour of an English gentleman, stooped to become the instrument of the vile espionage of Austria and the Pope; and thus added a new descriptive phrase to the English language, not likely soon to die out, "the Grahaming of letters." During these years of exile Mr. Mazzini was a resident in the British metropolis, enjoying the respect and esteem of all who knew him, and supporting himself by his contributions

to the leading periodicals and journals. By his industry and ability he not only earned an honourable independence, but was helpful to many of his less fortunate countrymen; and the unwearied zeal and labour which he evinced in behalf of the schools established for the benefit of the crowd of outcast Italian boys brought over to London, will not soon be forgotten. Upon the outburst of the French revolution of February 1848, Mazzini conceived that Paris was the proper centre of action, and, accordingly, he went thither. He returned to England for a short time, and then Lombardy having risen against the Austrians, he repaired to Milan, where he set up the paper "L'Italia del Popolo." Having little political sympathy with Charles-Albert, and distrusting him as the liberator of Italy, he remained at Milan until the defeat of the king. When the latter abandoned Milan, the people wished to make Mazzini dictator, and to intrust the defence of the city to him, but the Austrians were already at the gates, and nothing remained for the inhabitants but flight. Mazzini took refuge in the canton of Ticino, in Switzerland, whence, shortly after the expedition into the Val d'Intelir, he was again expelled. Rome had now declared itself a republic, and Mazzini was at once elected deputy to the Constituent Assembly for the town of Leghorn, where he landed, and was received with acclamations. After spending some time at Florence, in attempting to effect the fusion of Tuscany and Rome, he at length repaired to Rome. From that moment he became the leading spirit of the Roman Republic. On the 30th of March, 1849, Mazzini, together with Armelli and Saffi, was appointed a Triumvir, and received, with his colleagues, the full powers of the young state. He immediately set himself to organise an army of 50,000 men, cast cannon, and prepared in every way to govern and defend the republic. On the 26th of April, General Oudinot arrived at Civita Vecchia, with 6000 men, and not having been expected, effected a landing without difficulty. He issued a proclamation, denouncing the government as anarchical, and sent envoys to Rome to persuade the government to resign. On being *questioned* as to the reason for which their army-corps had *been sent* upon the Roman territory, these envoys answered *that it was* for the protection against an invasion which the *Austrians* were preparing; that the French government

wished to ascertain the precise sentiments of the population of the States, with regard to the form of government they might think proper; and that they intended to seek the entire reconciliation between Pius IX. and the Romans. Mazzini urged upon the envoys that the Austrian intervention which was put forward seemed a pretext, and that, at any rate, the people would have been able to defend itself; that such an occupation did not seem of good augury, seeing that it had been preceded by no communication, but, so far from it, General Oudinot had issued a threatening proclamation; that, in fact, it would have been more fair to have said that France, under pretence of preventing an intervention, intervened herself on a sudden, and without having given any notice of the course she intended to pursue. That with regard to the present form of government, the proclamation of the Republic, the fall of the Popedom, these facts were the solemn expression of the nation's will, manifested by universal suffrage. The envoys then hinted the misfortunes which must attend resistance; adding, that France would guarantee the accomplishment of the conditions on which the desired reconciliation with the Pope should be decided. They then asked, Would the French be received at Rome as they had been at Civita Vecchia? and were told that the triumvirs protested anew against the intervention, reserving to itself to consult the Assembly on its intentions. "For my part," said Mazzini, "I shall never allow a Frenchman to enter Rome with my consent." The envoys then retired. Mazzini then summoned the Assembly, and showed it two solutions of the question: either to resist at all hazards, and with the energy of despair; or to consult the people, in presence of the French expeditionary corps, as to what their opinions might be with regard to the question of the union of temporal and spiritual power. The Chamber at once resolved to commit the defence of the republic to the triumvirs, and repel force by force. Nothing now seemed to remain but war. On the 25th of April Oudinot's army began its march from Civita Vecchia to Rome. Three days afterwards a proclamation by the triumvirs was issued, providing for the security of the peaceable French students at Rome. Such was the spirit in which the Romans and their Government proposed *for the attack of the* French army, when on the point of *being exposed to* the bombs and cannons of 30,000 besiegers.

The first attack and repulse of the troops of Oudinot took place on the 30th of April. A few days after, a Neapolitan army of 15,000 men, commanded by the King of Naples in person, invaded the Roman territory, and marched to Albano, about fifteen miles from Rome. On the 10th of May, the second attack and repulse took place; and it was not until the 17th of May that, in consequence of the propositions of M. Lesseps, who had been sent as plenipotentiary from France to come to an understanding with the Romans, that there was any cessation of hostilities. On the 7th of May, Mazzini's name was appended to a remarkable proclamation, which cannot be passed over in any attempt to appreciate the character of his rule:—"ROMAN REPUBLIC: IN THE NAME OF GOD AND THE PEOPLE. Whereas, Rome and the French people are not, and cannot be, at war with each other;—whereas, Rome, in virtue of her right and her duty, defends her inviolability, but deplores every attack directed against the two republics as a crime against their common faith;—whereas, the Roman people does not regard soldiers, who fought from obedience, responsible for the actions of a mistaken government: the Triumvirate decrees—Art. 1. The French made prisoners on the 30th of April are free, and shall be sent back to the French camp. Art. 2. The Roman people will, at noon, bid a fraternal adieu to the brave soldiers of the French Republic, our sister.—The Triumvirs, ARMELLINI, MAZZINI, SAFFI. Rome, the 7th of May, 1849." Commander Cooper A. Key, who had been sent to Rome by Admiral Parker to fetch away the British residents anxious to leave the city, alluding to this circumstance, thus writes:—"On the afternoon of the 7th, the Roman Government decided on releasing the French prisoners. They were brought out in the streets, and received with every mark of good feeling by the people, who cheered them, gave them food, and showed them round St. Peter's and the monuments; the French, in return, saying that they had been deceived, having entered the Roman territory with the idea that they were to join the Romans against the Austrians and Neapolitans. They were then permitted to return to their own head-quarters." The negotiations of M. Lesseps, the French envoy, with the Assembly and Government of the Republic, formed, as is well known, a very important stage in the history of the invasion. Of more candid

and honourable disposition than the general with whom he came to co-operate, M. Lesseps had no sooner arrived at Rome, on the 15th of May, and examined matters for himself, than he became convinced that the French Government had proceeded on a complete mistake, if they had imagined that the people of Rome were willing to accept a French settlement of their national crisis. After his first glance at the state of affairs, he wrote to General Oudinot as follows: —"In the critical situation we are in, it appears to me extremely important to avoid every species of engagement. I see a whole town in arms. . . . . I find here, at the first glance, the aspect of a population determined to resist; and, rejecting all exaggerated estimates, one may reckon on at least about 25,000 serious combatants. If we enter by sheer force into Rome, not only shall we pass over the bodies of some foreign adventurers, but *we shall leave on the pavement men of the middle class, shopkeepers, and young men of family—all those classes, in short, that defend order and society in Paris.*" After writing this letter, this frank but blind minister pursued his difficult task of reconciling the Romans and the French — a task rendered absolutely impossible by the more secret instructions of which Oudinot was the depositary. On the 19th of May, the Roman Assembly rejected the first proposition of Lesseps, which demanded the opening of the gates of Rome to the French troops, on the mere promise that the French would act as brothers, and let the Romans decide on their future form of government. The armistice was, however, continued, and negotiations went on. In the meantime, the Romans took advantage of the opportunity to drive the Neapolitans and their wretched king out of the territory of the republic. But the Austrians invading the Roman states on the north, taking Bologna, and advancing as far as Ancona, Lesseps advanced another step in his commission, and on the 29th of May offered to engage that the French army, if received by the Romans, would secure the country against invasion by other troops. This proposal was also rejected by the Triumvirate, who stated their ultimatum in a counter-proposal, upon the basis of which a convention was agreed to on the 31st of May, between the Roman Assembly and M. Lesseps, on the ratification of which by General Oudinot, and by the French Government at home, the gates of Rome were to be opened to the French army—

the armistice to be, in any case, prolonged until fifteen days after the official announcement of the non-ratification of the convention. General Oudinot not only refused to ratify this convention, but also refused to respect the armistice which his civil colleague had authoritatively concluded. Thereupon M. Lesseps, considering himself insulted, returned to Paris 1st of June, to bring the matter before his Government, little suspecting that his honesty had ruined him with his employers, and that Oudinot had their confidence. Oudinot then promised that he would not recommence the attack on the city before Monday, the 4th of June; but, in spite of this solemn engagement, he was guilty of the infamy of beginning the attack at three o'clock on the morning of Sunday, the 3d, thus taking the citizens when off their guard. From this time, the exertions of Mazzini were incessantly directed to aiding the military resistance with all the force of the state. From the 3d of June, when Oudinot so treacherously recommenced his attack, to the 30th of June, when the Assembly resolved that the heroic city could defend itself no longer, Rome, as all know, was one continued scene of combat, fire, ruin, and carnage; and yet, to the last, the same admirable spirit which we have already remarked characterised the acts of the Government, and pervaded the whole population. A more heroic defence, or a higher magnanimity, under the heaviest trials, is nowhere recorded in history. It was this fact that gave Mazzini power to demand, in that terrible letter which he addressed to MM. de Tocqueville and Falloux,—"During nearly five months of republican government, can you, gentlemen, point out a single condemnation to death for a political offence? a single exile, founded upon political offences? a single exceptional tribunal, instituted in Rome, to judge political offences? a single newspaper suspended by order of the Government? a single decree directed to restrain the liberty of the press, anterior to the siege? If so, point them out—point out the laws originating in a system of terror—point out the ferocious bands of which you speak—point out the victims of our rule, or resign yourselves to be branded as liars. . . . . Our capital was cheerful and happy under the weight of sacrifice which sudden changes must always impose upon a *state;* tranquil and serene when the presence of your army *under its* walls might have provoked the malcontents—if

malcontents were to be found in Rome—to acts of rashness. Our National Guards furnished upwards of 7000 men, for active service within the city and on the walls. Our prisons were all but empty of political offenders. Two or three individuals, strongly suspected of intercourse with your camp, two or three cardinals taken in the very act of conspiracy, and an official (Zamboni) guilty of desertion, were all who were under trial when M. de Corcelles visited the prisons. The five or six prisoners—Freddi, Alai, and the rest found by him in the castle of St. Angelo, were there by order of Pius IX., and for plots against his government. The men most averse to the Republic—a Mamiani, a Pantaleoni—walked free through the streets of Rome. We reminded the people, who mistrusted them, that the Republic, superior to the dethroned power, held opinions to be inviolable, unless manifested in dangerous acts; and the people, generous by nature and from a consciousness of power, understood and respected this. Nor was there any danger for such men, until we could no longer interpose, and the spectacle of your brute force irritated the multitude to reaction." On the 3d of July, Mazzini left Rome, where his presence could no longer aid the cause of the nation, "with," as one of his political opponents (L. Mariotti) has nobly said, "the mantle of Rienzi on his shoulders." Devoted as ever to the cause of his country, still hopeful, politic, and industrious, he now labours busily in England to secure the success of the next struggle for his country's emancipation.

MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN, FREDERICK-FRANCIS, GRAND-DUKE OF, was born February 28, 1823, is son of the Grand-Duke Paul-Frederick and the Princess Alexandrina of Prussia. He received a private education until 1838, when he entered Blochmann's Institute at Dresden; whence he removed to the University of Bonn, where Prince Albert had studied the year before. It was hence that he was called by the early death of his father, in 1842, to assume the government. The duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, although governed by the heads of the two branches of the royal house, have a common administration, in virtue of an ancient settlement. The actual government is in the hands of the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg- Schwerin. Prior to the era of German

popular revolutions, the united duchies had a Chamber of Orders, or Stände. In 1848, however, a constitutional chamber was elected at the desire of the sovereign, and on the 23d July, 1849, the grand-duke sanctioned the constitution which had been voted by this chamber. The Grand-duke of Strelitz, however, refused to be a party to this arrangement, whereupon it was proposed to him to dissolve the union between the sister states. This offer the Government of Strelitz declined, and proposed in return to convoke the former states, consisting of the deputies of the equestrian order, to deliberate upon the reforms to be made in the old constitution. The equestrians were called together, and declared against all reforms. On the 19th of August the Mecklenburg deputies took upon themselves to declare the union between the two duchies terminated. Three days afterwards the governing duke declared his personal readiness to accept the constitution, and dissolved the constitutional assembly. On the 5th October following, the aguates of the reigning ducal house of Schwerin protested against the proposed constitution; and the next day the representatives of the equestrian order assembled at Rostock, and drew up a document, in which they maintained the invalidity of any constitution drawn up without their consent and concurrence. This document was presented to the Grand-duke of Schwerin, but by him refused. On the 10th the grand-duke executed the bold resolution of suppressing the estates of the equestrian order and the corporations on which they depended, promulgating at the same time the new fundamental laws. On the 19th the chevaliers assembled and protested formally against this annihilation of their privileges. The next day the Duke of Strelitz caused a plaint to be presented before an arbitral tribunal against the ministry of Schwerin. On the 22d of November the King of Prussia, who saw with jealousy the recognition of popular rights as superior to class-interests taking place in his immediate neighbourhood, protested against the fundamental laws of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, basing his protest upon a treaty of eventual succession, dated 1842, as well as upon the protests of the Duke of Strelitz, the aguates of the reigning house, and the equestrian order. In the autumn of 1851 the arbitral *tribunal* decided in favour of the equestrian order, and the *grand-duke*, probably with sincere regret, withdrew the fun-

damental laws. He has since found the chevaliers his greatest enemies.

MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ, FREDERICK-CHAS.-JOSEPH, GRAND-DUKE OF, born at Hanover, August 12, 1779, is the third son of the Grand-duke Charles-Lewis-Frederick, whom he succeeded in the government on the 6th of November, 1816. He lost his mother as early as May 22, 1782. As his father, married a second time, removed his residence from Hanover to Darmstadt, this prince enjoyed the tender care of his grandmother, the Landgravine of Hesse, until 1794, when he accompanied his father, then just called to the government, to New Strelitz. Soon after he entered the University of Rostock, which he left in 1799. He then lived at the court of Berlin, in the society of his sister, Queen Louise, and the Princess Frederika, afterwards Queen of Hanover. In 1802 he travelled in Italy, where he remained two years. After the battle of Jena he went to Paris, to negotiate for the admission of his state into the Confederation of the Rhine. In 1814 he attended the Congress of Vienna, and the next year visited England after the battle of Waterloo. On the 12th of August, 1817, he married the Princess Maria, daughter of Frederick, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. As a governor, he has shown himself anxious for the improvement of the physical and moral welfare of his people, particularly by the promotion and improvement of agriculture, and the extension and multiplication of schools. The service for which he will be the longest remembered with gratitude is the abolition of personal slavery, which, to the disgrace of Christendom, existed here until his accession. His son, the Hereditary Grand-Duke Frederick-William, born October 17, 1819, married, July 14, 1843, the Princess Augusta, eldest daughter of the late Duke of Cambridge.

METTERNICH, CLEMENS-WENZEL-NEPOMUK-LOTHAR. Prince Metternich, lately, and for forty years, the most powerful minister in Europe, was born at Coblenz May 15th, 1773, educated at Strasburg and Mayence; in 1790 obtained the office of Master of the Ceremonies at the coronation of the Emperor Leopold II.; in 1794 made a journey to England, became Austrian ambassador at the Hague, and in

1795 married the grand-daughter and heiress of the well-known Minister Kaunitz. His diplomatic career commenced at the Congress of Rastadt, where he appeared as a deputy from the Westphalian nobility. In 1801 he became Austrian ambassador at Dresden; and in the winter of 1803–4 was at Berlin, where he negotiated a treaty between Austria, Prussia, and Russia; and in 1806 was sent as ambassador to Paris. In this capacity, in 1807, he closed at Fontainebleau the treaty so advantageous to Austria. On the commencement of war between Austria and France, in 1809, he hastened to join the imperial court at Comorn, and after the battle of Wagram succeeded Stadion as Minister of Foreign Affairs. Metternich conducted the negotiation which purchased a respite for the empire at the price of an archduchess, completing his work by conducting the second Empress of the French to Paris. Though he did this, perhaps his strongest feeling was hatred to France and the Emperor; and when the opportunity occurred, he displayed it. The decided impulse given by Metternich to the policy of Austria in the parley of Dresden and the conferences of Prague, was the signal of Napoleon's downfall. The 10th of August, 1813, had been assigned as the period within which France might accede to the liberal offers of the Three Powers. That fatal hour passed by, and Count Metternich spent the self-same night in framing the Austrian declaration of war. A month later, the Grand Alliance was signed at Töplitz; and before October had closed, the Emperor Francis raised him to the dignity of a Prince of the Empire upon the field of Leipzig. When the allied armies invaded France, Metternich took an active part in the management of affairs. He signed the treaty of Paris, and afterwards proceeded on a mission to England, when the University of Oxford conferred on him an honorary degree. When the Congress of Vienna opened, Metternich, then in his forty-second year, was chosen to preside over its deliberations. He assumed at that important conjuncture the species of supremacy in the diplomatic affairs of Germany and Europe which he retained, by the courtesy of cabinets until the close of his career, and which, at certain periods of his administration, extended to a real predominance over the leading states of Europe. This he can scarcely be said to have gained by any greatness of soul or breadth of view, but rather by courtesy, cautiousness, and by standing al-

ways on the defensive, and ever in defence of kings. The work of the Congress of Vienna bore no traces of a master-mind. Constitutional liberty and national unity were unsecured. Hatred of constitutional government, and denial of all popular rights, were the results of prejudice or fear with Metternich; but they entered always into his mode of deciding national affairs. That mystical bond called the "Holy Alliance," suggested originally by the Emperor Alexander, was soon turned by the Austrian cabinet into active league against every liberal principle of political improvement; and such became his power, that, from 1814 to 1822, England herself had allowed her foreign policy to be wholly guided by the system of the Austrian cabinet, and the ministers of this country were degraded into the abettors of a policy they must have despised. The accession of Mr. Canning to office broke this bondage, and England recovered her independent voice to protest against the abuses which had hitherto been committed with impunity in the councils of Europe. The first important event which occurred after this change was the struggle for the independence of Greece, and the intervention of the Christian powers in favour of that people. Of those powers Austria was not one, and in those memorable achievements Prince Metternich bore no part. His sympathy (says a writer who has sketched his career with much talent) was avowedly on the side of Ibrahim Pacha; for, without distinction of race or creed, the Austrian cabinet was prepared to crush every insurrection in blood. The events of the war which ensued between Russia and Turkey, perhaps, inspired him, though in a much fainter degree, with other apprehensions; and an army was collected on the eastern frontier of the empire. Yet the Russians were allowed to outflank Austria between the Black Sea and the Hungarian frontier, to hold for a considerable time the fortresses of the Lower Danube, to establish their ascendancy in Moldavia and Wallachia, and, finally, by the treaty of Adrianople, to master the mouths of that river, which is the artery of the Austrian dominions. The fact that these prodigious changes were effected by Russia, without so much as an indignant remonstrance from those who had succeeded to the power of Maria Theresa and Kaunitz, but without inheriting their firmness and foresight, is one of the most important, and probably lasting, stains upon the administration of Prince Metternich. A far more

momentous event was, however, approaching, which at once turned all the apprehensions of the cabinet of Vienna in the direction of France, and restored the three northern courts to their closest intimacy. In 1830, the power of the French Revolution broke forth once more with sudden and irresistible intensity. Three days achieved its triumph; and even the representative of Austria acknowledged the accession of the Citizen King. The first exclamation of Francis, when the intelligence of that great and sudden revolution reached him in the groves of Laxemburg, was "*Alles ist verloren!*" and "All is lost!" seemed from that moment to become the maxim of his Minister, who, acknowledging that the current of human affairs ran against him, was at least prepared to play out his game to the last extremity, and to secure his personal power as long as he had energy to wield it. Metternich, however, soon learned the secret of the new French king's character, and a tacit understanding arose between the governments of Austria and France. The events which agitated Europe in consequence of the Revolution of July, met, of course, a strenuous resistance from the Austrian minister. Italy was occupied by his troops; in Poland, he had for an instant carried on a negotiation with the insurgent patriots, but their speedy defeat placed him again in the catalogue of their foes; in the Low Countries, the diplomacy of Austria laboured to support the pretensions of the King of Holland; in Spain, she thought it worth while to expend incredible sums to enable Don Carlos to carry on a desperate contest in the name of legitimacy; in Germany, measures were taken, in conjunction with Prussia, to crush every symptom of popular excitement and national independence. But during the whole of this important period, the policy of Austria was steadily opposed by that of the Western Alliance; and although the peace of the world was not broken, every object which the Liberal party in Europe had sought to attain was gradually approached, and Austria saw the rising tide of constitutional freedom destroy the barriers on which she fondly rested the welfare of the world. In reality, this long series of defeats, and this steady adherence to the losing cause, had greatly and deservedly lowered the political consideration which Prince Metternich enjoyed. *So long* a dominion, and so little magnanimity, were never *before* united in a man who was supposed to have owed his

fortune to his own abilities. He was everywhere and in all things below his proper position. In Germany, the decline of Austrian influence was no less perceptible than in the general relations of Europe. Everywhere the German people felt that, to them at least, Prince Metternich has been an unfaithful servant. He held the primacy of Germany but in name; and his administration more effectually destroyed the German ascendancy of the house of Austria than the battle of Austerlitz or the Confederation of the Rhine. Nor was this continual decline compensated by a vigorous and successful government of the internal provinces of the empire. Their vast natural resources, and the industry of the people, have, indeed, in some respects, triumphed over the inertness of the Government. The Danube was opened by Count Szechenyi to the Anglo-Hungarian steam-boats; and Baron Kubeck enabled a railroad company to connect Trieste with Prague, and pierce the great chain of the Styrian Alps. But these works rarely met with encouragement from the Chancellor of the Empire; except in the case of Trieste, which he looked upon with especial favour and interest, he did nothing for the commercial interest of Austria. The various provinces of the empire were neither drawn together by closer ties to the hereditary states, after the policy of Joseph, nor gratified by local administrations and reforms in accordance with their usages, their languages, and their laws. Yet, in spite of these precautions and this resistance, the latter years of Prince Metternich's administration witnessed the revival of all the national tendencies, which he sought to extirpate or control. The Magyar, the Czech, the Pole, and the Lombard, spoke in their several tongues the same language of independence; and it would be idle to pretend that Prince Metternich had the wisdom or the strength to give unity to those motley and heterogeneous dominions. In reality, the Austrian Government in his hands became an administration of anonymous and irresponsible agents, working under the imposing shelter of a few imposing names, but equally devoid in their own persons of talent and of dignity. The great and rapid events of the last few months of 1847 complete the dissolution of that system in which and for which Prince Metternich lived. The accession of Pius IX. to the Papal throne shook to its centre the ascendancy of Austria in Italy; and the feeble attempt at an act of vigour in Ferrara roused the indignation,

not only of Italy, but of Europe. The cause of Italian reform prospered. One by one, the courts which had existed for twenty-five years upon Prince Metternich's favour, and those most nearly connected with the Imperial family, crept into the sunshine of popularity, and at length Naples itself sealed, for a while, by revolution, the principle of constitutional government. From that moment, the whole Italian policy of the Austrian cabinet was confined to the defence of Lombardy. Meanwhile, in its own provinces formidable traces occurred of that spirit which the atrocious massacres of Galicia had not quelled; and the empire seemed drifting before the storm. At that moment the monarchy of France was upset, and the whole of Europe was rent by the convulsion. The shock reached Vienna. A street tumult of two or three hours on the 13th of March, 1848, was sufficient to overturn the entire fabric of the Government. The ex-Chancellor of State stuck to the last moment to his old system. As the deputation of citizens on the evening of the 13th arrived at the court, they passed through a suite of rooms into a spacious hall, where Archduke John received them. As the speaker of the deputation depicted the unfortunate state of affairs, and urged the necessity of a speedy decision on the part of the Government, Archduke John quieted them by saying, that the first measure would be the resignation of Prince Metternich. At these words, the Prince came out of the adjoining room, in which all the archdukes and ministers had assembled to deliberate, and, leaving the door open, he said in a loud tone, "I will not resign, gentlemen — no, I will not resign!" Archduke John, upon this, without answering the Prince, repeated what he had said, and cried in an earnest tone, "As I have already told you, Prince Metternich resigns." At these words, the Prince exclaimed, in a tone of great excitement, "What! is this the return I now get for my fifty years' services?" At these words, all the men forming the family council broke out into a loud laugh, which seemed to annihilate the unfortunate statesman. On the morning of the 14th, he arrived at the station of the Gloggnitz Railway, under the escort of fifty hussars, went by rail to Wiener Neustadt, and from that to Frohsdorf, where, apparently, he hoped to find a refuge. His expectations were not realised, *however;* and he then fled to Feldsperg, one of the seats of *Prince Leichtenstein*, on the frontiers of Moravia, and subse-

quently to his own property, Kopstein. Having rested there a week to recover himself, he went to Dresden on the 25th, and started in the first train to Leipzig the next morning. He would not, however, touch at Leipzig, but left the station nearest to it, to proceed thence to Schkeuditz, then by the next train to Magdeburg and Hamburg, to go finally to England. He inscribed himself in the *fremde buch* (strangers' book) under the name of Herr V. Meyer and lady and suite, merchant, from Grätz. In England—the last hope of the exile, princely or democratic—he found a secure abode until time and the follies of the ultra-revolutionary leaders had worn off something of the odium which attached to his character. He left this country, and remained some months in Belgium. At length the population of Austria was thought to be coerced sufficiently to admit of his return; and in the autumn of 1851 he made a progress in semi-state to his splendid palace in the Rennweg at Vienna. Metternich has not been re-admitted to official position, nor is it probable that he would adopt the responsibility of any part of Schwarzenberg's policy, in return for such rewards as the Austrian court has left to bestow.

MEYERBEER, GIACOMO (MEYER BEER), Musical Composer, was born at Berlin in 1794. His father, James Beer, a rich Jewish banker, gave him an excellent education, and his musical talents developed themselves so early, that at seven years of age he played the pianoforte at concerts. When fifteen he commenced his great musical studies. The Abbé Vogler, one of the greatest organists of Germany, had at this time opened a school of music at Darmstadt, into which only the rarest talent was received for cultivation. Here Meyerbeer had for fellow-pupils Gæusbarber, chapelmaster at Vienna, C. Marie von Weber, and Godefroy de Heber. Each morning the pupils met in the drawing-room of the professor, who gave to every one a theme, which was to be accomplished in the course of the day; one day it was a psalm, another an ode, and on a third a lyric. In the evening Vogler again met the pupils, when the pieces were executed. Two years after the commencement of Meyerbeer's residence with Vogler the latter closed his school, and the two travelled in Germany during a year. At Munich, under Vogler's auspices, Meyerbeer produced his first work,

"Jephtha's Daughter;" he was then eighteen years of age. Vogler now drew up, with amusing self-complacency, a brevet of *maestro*, to which he added, with the same plea, his blessing, gave both to Meyerbeer, and bade him adieu. At this time the Italian style was in high favour at Vienna; Meyerbeer wrote his "Two Caliphs," at the request of the court, and, neglecting the prevailing taste, failed of success. He then took the advice of Salieri, author of "Tarare," who comforted him by the assurance that he had evinced true musical genius in his last composition, and pressed him to visit Italy. Here his tastes became modified under the influence of a beautiful climate, and he was charmed with the Italian style. From this time he commenced a series of works which have achieved the highest success. A list of his numerous compositions would exceed our limits. His "Robert le Diable," the "Huguenots," and the "Prophète," are known all over Europe. Besides his operas he has written a Stabat, a Misere, a Te Deum, twelve psalms, several cantatas, an oratorio, and a great number of melodies to Italian, French, and German words. In 1842 he was named Chapel-master to the King of Prussia. He is also a member of the Academy of Fine Arts at Berlin, an Associate of the Institute, and an officer of the Legion of Honour.

MICHELET, JULES, French Historian, born at Paris, August 21, 1798, devoted himself early to historical studies, and in his twenty-third year became a public teacher, after having passed a brilliant *concours*. From 1821 until 1826 he was engaged in teaching the ancient languages, history and philosophy, in the Collège Rollin (otherwise Collège Sainte Barbe). In 1827 he was appointed *maître des conférences* at the Ecole Normale. Shortly after the Revolution of 1830 he was appointed chief of the historical section of the archives of the realm; and Guizot, prevented by the claims of political life from continuing his lectures on history in the Faculty of Literature at Paris, named Michelet his substitute. In 1838 he succeeded Danvon in the chair of history in the Collège de France, and in the same year was elected member of the Institute. As an historian, M. Michelet belongs to the school which regards history as a body of philosophic teaching. He supports his views upon the philosophy of history as it is taught in Germany, and particularly on the ideas of Vico,

of whose works he has published an edition. Michelet's greatest works are his "Roman History," and his "History of France," neither of which are as yet completed. Both are distinguished by great warmth and colouring. His "Outlines of the History of France before the Revolution" is highly popular. He has since begun to write a "History of the French Revolution." In the early stages of his career he produced a number of epitomes, and also "The Antiquities of French Law," chiefly compiled from the analogous work of Grimm. He is a bitter enemy of the Jesuits, as his "Priests, Women, and Families," a condensation of some of his lectures, amply proves. Yet no writer has described with so much fascination the artistic and æsthetic aspect of the Romish Church. The Government of Guizot, alarmed by the vigour of his attacks, fell into the errors of the councillors of Charles X., and interdicted Michelet's lectures. When the Revolution of February took place he was in the height of his popularity, but refused to accept the nominations which were pressed upon him.

MIGNET, FRANCOIS-AUGUSTUS-ALEXIS, a French Historian, born at Aix (Bouches-du-Rhône) May 6, 1796. He was educated at Avignon, and having terminated his university course, went to study law at his native town, where he had for fellow-student M. Thiers. He had been some time called to the bar, when the Academy of Aix offered a prize for an *éloge* of Charles VII. He wrote and obtained the prize, a circumstance which determined him to take up his residence in Paris; where he arrived, and lodged with M. Thiers. In 1822 he published his dissertation on Feudalism, and the institutions and legislations of St. Louis, written for a prize proposed by the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres, and demonstrated that even Montesquieu and Boulanvilliers had left something to be discovered on the subject. Two years later, his best-known work, "The History of the Revolution," appeared, and had a great success. In this work he betrays the tendencies of the fatalist school, and is evidently pointing out a necessary and inevitable progress in the revolution, not only in general and immediate facts, but in its extremest consequences. At that time he had already become one of the contributors to the "Courrier Français," while his friend Thiers was writing in the "Constitutionnel."

and both remained, until 1830, faithful to these journals, then the organs of the most advanced opposition. In 1830, however, they both associated themselves with Armand Carrel, to found a new journal, the "National," with the object of popularising in France the idea of substituting the younger for the elder branch of the house of Bourbon, as the sole means of terminating the perpetual war between the interests of the revolution and the new generation and the *ancien régime*. By signing the protest of the press against the decrees of July, M. Mignet had risked his person and liberty; and the new Government recompensed him by appointing him Director of the Archives of the Foreign Ministry, a nomination which seemed to promise, on the part of the new power, the admission of real capacity to public functions, to which, hitherto, none but creatures of the priestly party had been able to attain. Shortly after this he was nominated an extraordinary councillor of state, and commissioned, in this capacity, to support the budget during the discussions in the Chamber during the sessions of 1832 and 1835. In 1832 he had been called to the Institute, in the class of moral and political science; and on the death of Charles Comte was appointed its perpetual secretary. In the discharge of these functions he has had occasion, for about fourteen years, to present to the Academy, according to usage, sketches of the lives and works of deceased members, as they were removed. A number of these have been collected and published under the title, "Notices et Mémoires historiques. He has also written "Négociations relatives à la Succession d'Espagne sous Louis XIV.," a collection of letters and diplomatic documents relative to the pretensions of the Bourbons to the Spanish throne. In 1837 the Academy elected him one of its members, in the room of Raynouard. As the constant friend of Thiers, it was natural that Mignet should be regarded by the republicans as their enemy. Accordingly, one of the first acts of M. De Lamartine on taking possession of the ministry of foreign affairs was to remove his old colleague of the Académie from the office of Director of Archives. Of all the offices filled by M. Mignet under the monarchy of July, he retains but that of the perpetual secretaryship of the Academy of the Moral and Political Sciences, where he is protected by the tacitly recog*nised princi*ple of immovability.

MILLER, THOMAS, Poet and Basket-maker, was born in the old town of Gainsborough, in Lincolnshire, August 31st, 1809. Like Burns, Bloomfield, Hogg, and Cunningham, he is self-taught. His whole education, as he himself has stated, enabled him "to write a very indifferent hand, and to read the Testament tolerably." He began life as a basket-maker; but having written some verses which attracted the notice of Rogers, the banker and poet, Miller was encouraged and assisted to start in a new walk of life. He has written a considerable number of books, more or less successfully. His novels are, "Royston Gower," "Fair Rosamond," and "Lady Jane Grey," each work containing three volumes. Besides these, he has written "Gideon Giles," "Godfrey Malvern," and "Fred Holdersworth," the last of which appeared in "The Illustrated London News," a paper to which he has also contributed "Picturesque Sketches of London." His country books are, however, the most popular. They are, "A Day in the Woods," "Beauties of the Country," "Rural Sketches," "Pictures of Country Life," and "Country Scenes." To these may be added his "History of the Anglo-Saxons" (a strange subject for him to have selected), "Lights and Shadows of London Life," "The Language of Flowers," and a volume of poems. His works for youth are, "The Boy's Country Year-Book," "Fortune and Fortitude," "Old England," and "Original Poems for my Children." He has also been a contributor to various journals.

MILMAN, HENRY HART, Author and Clergyman, was born in London, February 10, 1791, the youngest son of Sir Francis Milman, physician to George III. He was educated at Dr. Burney's academy at Greenwich, at Eton, and at Brasenose College, Oxford. In 1817 he took orders, becoming at once clergyman and dramatist, received the vicarage of St. Mary's, Reading, and published the play of "Fazio." The drama was played with some success, particularly at Covent Garden, where Miss O'Neill sustained the character of the heroine. In the early part of 1818 his next work, "Samor," an heroic poem in twelve books, appeared. Of this work a writer in the "Quarterly" affirms that every page (there were 374) exhibits some beautiful expression, some pathetic turn, some original thought, or some striking image. In 1820 he published another poem, called the "Fall of

Jerusalem," and founded on the narrative of Josephus. In 1821 he was elected Professor of Poetry to the University of Oxford. He shortly published, at brief intervals, "Anne Boleyne," "the "Martyr of Antioch," and "Belshazzar." Mr. Milman has written in prose a "History of Christianity," a "History of the Jews," "Notes and Illustrations to Gibbon's Decline and Fall," and a number of articles in the "Quarterly." Having been some time rector of St. Margaret's, Westminster, he was, in November 1849, presented to the deanery of St. Paul's.

MODENA, FRANCIS - FERDINAND - GEMIMEN, DUKE OF, is son of Francis IV., whose father was the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria. His grandmother was the only daughter of Duke Hercules III., in whom expired the male line of the celebrated House of Este. As his father took good care to support, during a reign of thirty-two years, all popular institutions in the duchy, Francis V. has had little to do since his accession in 1846, but enjoy the revenues of his state, sometimes at home and sometimes in Vienna. He was born June 1, 1819, and married March 30, 1842, the Princess Adelgonde, daughter of the ex king Louis of Bavaria. His sister is married to the Comte de Chambord, the Legitimist pretender to the crown of France.

MOLÉ, COUNT, a French Statesman and ex-Minister, was born in 1780, and is descended of an illustrious legal family. Early in life, more than forty-eight years ago, he entered the service of France under the First Consul, as Auditor of the Council of State, and subsequently filled high administrative functions under the Emperor. Molé has been a French peer for many years, and, therefore, his discourses have not been heard in the Chamber of Deputies. But although his name was not in the mouths of the public, like the names of Guizot, Thiers, and Berryer, every educated Frenchman regarded him as one of the foremost and most considerable men of France. He is a rather a man of the world than a *littérateur*, or a man of science; yet he is more of a scholar and a man of science than M. Thiers, and understands all questions of diplomacy and administration better than either *Thiers or* Guizot. Molé is a hater of the Revolution, which *balked him of* power, as his name had been issued by Louis-

Philippe, as the head of a new ministry, only an hour before that monarch was compelled to abdicate. He was not included among the representatives of the people in the Constituent, but sat in the National Assembly, where he was recognised as the leader of that monarchical party which sought to fuse the interests of the elder and younger branches of the House of Bourbon, and unite all the friends of kingly government for a counter-revolution.

MOLTKE, ADAM WILLIAM, COUNT, a Danish Statesman, is one of a noble family which has furnished a large number of distinguished men for the service of the state. Adam was born in 1785, the son of Joachim Godske, count Moltke, who entered the public service by the most humble portal, and having afterwards administered public affairs at a most critical period, and raised the national credit, died in 1818, leaving an immense fortune. In 1848, Count Adam Moltke had been for more than thirty years Danish Minister of Finance. On the 22d of March, 1848, he was made president of the new ministry which was then formed to assert the integrity of the Danish monarchy, in opposition to the Separatists of Schleswig-Holstein. On the 10th of August, 1850, he resigned office.

MONTGOMERY, JAMES, Poet, was born as long ago as November 4, 1771, at Irvine, in Ayrshire. His father was a Moravian minister, who, leaving his son in Yorkshire to be educated, went to the West Indies, where he and the poet's mother both died. When only twelve years old, the bent of the boy's mind was shown by the production of various small poems. These indications could not save him at first from the fate of the poor, and he was sent to earn his bread as assistant in a chandler's shop. He thirsted for other occupations, and one day set off with 3*s.* 6*d.* in his pocket to walk to London, to seek fame and fortune. In his first effort he broke down, and for a while gave up his plan to take service in another shop. Only for a time, however, was he content, and a second effort to reach the metropolis was successful, so far as bringing him to the spot he had longed for, but unsuccessful to his second hope,—that of finding a publisher for a volume of his verses. But the publisher who refused Montgomery's poems accepted his labour, and made him his

shopman. Fortune, however, as she generally does, smiled at last on the zealous youth, and in 1792 he gained a post in the establishment of Mr. Gales, a bookseller of Sheffield, who had set up a newspaper called the "Sheffield Register." On this paper Montgomery worked *con amore*, and when his master had to fly from England to avoid imprisonment for printing an article too liberal for the then despotic Government of England, the young poet became the editor and publisher of the paper,—the name of which he changed to "Sheffield Iris." In the columns of this print he advocated political and religious freedom, and such conduct secured for him the attentions of the attorney-general, by whom he was prosecuted, fined, and imprisoned; in the first instance, for reprinting a song commemorating "The Fall of the Bastile;" in the second case, for an account he gave of a riot in Sheffield. Confinement could not crush his love of political justice, and on his second release he went on advocating the doctrines of freedom as before, in his paper and in his books. In the lengthy period between those times and the present, the beliefs which James Montgomery early pioneered in England have obtained general recognition, and as men became more and more liberal our poet gained more and more esteem. He contributed to magazines, and, despite adverse criticism in the "Edinburgh Review," established his right to rank as a poet. In 1797 he published "Prison Amusements;" in 1805, "The Ocean;" in 1806, "The Wanderer in Switzerland;" in 1809, "The West Indies;" and in 1812, "The World before the Flood." By these works he obtained the chief reputation he has since enjoyed. In 1819 appeared "Greenland," a poem in five cantos; and in 1828, "The Pelican Island, and other Poems." This venerable poet now enjoys a well-deserved literary pension of 200*l.* a-year.

MONTI, RAFFAELLE, Sculptor, born in 1819, in Milan. In 1838, having exhibited a group of "Ajax defending the body of Patroclus," he was invited to go to Vienna, where he gained extensive patronage; nor was he less fortunate when he returned to his native city, which he enriched by various successful works. In 1847 he came to England, and exhibited at Colnaghi's, besides other minor works, the veiled statue for the Duke of Devonshire, which attracted much attention during that season. Returning to Milan, he joined the

popular political party, and in 1848, as one of the chiefs of the National Guard of Milan, was among those sent on a mission to the camp of King Charles-Albert. The war over, he fled to this country, which had received him so favourably the year before. He here executed several works, among which are the groups of the "Two Sisters," the "Veiled Slave," and "Eve after the Fall." Few of the thousands who visited the Great Exhibition of All Nations in 1851 will ever forget the beauty of his sculpture displayed in the Milan department.

MOORE, THOMAS, Poet, was born in Dublin, on the 28th of May, 1780; the only son of Mr. Garret Moore, a respectable tradesman of that city. His early education was superintended by a Mr. Whyte, who had also been Sheridan's preceptor. At the age of fourteen he was entered as a student of Trinity College, and here, we are told, made himself as remarkable for the eloquence wherewith he supported his well-known peculiar opinions, as for his classical attainments. At the close of the year 1799 he entered himself as a member of the Inner Temple, and in the year following gained the surname which will, perhaps, be graven on his tomb, by the publication of his translation of Anacreon's Odes; this was dedicated to George IV., then Prince of Wales. In 1801 he published a volume of love-poems, under the assumed name of Little. Mr. Moore's next essays were political, being two poems, "Corruption and Intolerance," in which he shows himself as warm a patriot as he had before shown himself a warm votary of pleasure. "A Candid Appeal to Public Confidence," another work devoted to the topics of the hour, bears the date of 1803; and it may have been about this time, or yet earlier, if we are to judge from two pleasant lines by Croker, that he essayed dramatic composition, the piece being "The Gipsey Prince," which met with only a partial success. In the autumn of 1803 Mr. Moore was appointed Registrar to the Admiralty at Bermuda, and proceeded thither; but after a short residence, finding the place and the drudgery of office intolerable to him, he decided on fulfilling its duties by deputy; and, paying a flying visit to America on his way homeward, returned to England late in the year 1804. In 1806 he published his "Odes and Epistles," suggested by this ramble—a series of travelling sketches and personal

poems, in which he expressed very strongly the unfavourable views of American character formed during his travels. The volume was reviewed by Jeffrey, in the "Edinburgh," with so much severity, that the poet challenged the critic. A hostile meeting took place, but the duel was prevented by the intervention of the police. On the pistols being examined, it was found that the seconds or some other provident persons had substituted paper pellets for balls; this gave occasion to much laughter and many epigrams; but as both parties were men of undoubted courage, their character remained unimpeached. In the year 1807 Mr. Moore presented himself to the public as the author of the "Irish Melodies." By these his name will be known, so long as there are voices to sing and hearts to feel. Few have ever applied themselves to any task so richly qualified as he was. He possessed not merely the mechanical power over language and rhythm, the musical ear, and, we may add, the musical knowledge so eminently requisite for a song writer, but he entered thoroughly into the spirit of the national music which he had undertaken to "marry with rhyme," and could, with enviable versatility,

"Call up the sunshine, or bring down the showers,"

by a strain careless or melancholy as the air under his hands (*and in his heart*) demanded. Among the other verses for music which Mr. Moore has poured forth, with a fertility almost unexampled, we may enumerate the "National Melodies," the "Sacred Melodies," the "Evenings in Greece," and the "Summer Fête," where the songs are strung together on a connecting thread of verse, slight indeed, but always golden: to say nothing of other later collections, and a countless variety of single songs, and duets, and glees. In many of these Mr. Moore, besides being their poet, appears as musical composer also, with happy effect. In the year 1811 Mr. Moore made his second dramatic essay in an opera, "M. P., or the Blue Stocking." This was produced at the Lyceum, then under Mr. Arnold's management, with but questionable success. During the six subsequent years he was principally occupied with the publication of songs and political *jeux d'esprit*, the doings of the Regent and his *household* furnishing him abundant matter for his wit. *Many of his* sharpest-pointed sallies (they are all as fine as

poignant) appeared in the "Times" newspaper, with which he was understood to have formed a regular connexion. The "Twopenny Post-bag" was published in 1813. During these years, too, he mixed largely in the fashionable and brilliant society of the metropolis, of which such lively glimpses are to be found in the correspondence of his friend and contemporary, Lord Byron. The poet of "Childe Harold," and of the "Melodies," assumed the matrimonial yoke about the same period, but with far different results of happiness. In 1817 Mr. Moore's popularity seemed to be at its height, before "Lalla Rookh" made its appearance; but the enormous sum (three thousand guineas) given for it by its publishers was an earnest that that oriental tale of tales was to be spread abroad yet more widely, to be read and got by heart with even a warmer enthusiasm than its author's shorter metrical essays; and the event justified their anticipations, for "Lalla Rookh" wrought an immediate and universal enchantment upon the English public. The stories it contains excited a strong interest, the music of the verse in which they were poured out was of a seducing and luxurious harmony, and all the gorgeous and picturesque shows of the East, among which the fancy has loved to revel ever since the days when the "Thousand and One Nights" was a favourite cradle-book, were scattered through the poet's pages with a rich and graceful profusion. Moore's next work, "The Fudge Family," one of those brilliant trifles in right of which he stands unrivalled, owed its birth to a passing visit to Paris, whose humours, and the humours of its visitors, the sight-seeing English, were as yet comparatively unexhausted. More recently Mr. Moore, in his "Fudge Family in England," has reproduced the actors who figured in that piquant satire. In 1821 Mr. Moore was compelled, by the defalcations of his deputy in Bermuda, to leave England. He resided for about fourteen months in Paris, until he wrote his second and last long poem, "The Loves of the Angels," which was published in 1823, and realised a sum sufficient to discharge the claims of his creditors. In the same year appeared his "Fables for the Holy Alliance," published under the name of Thomas Browne. Besides being author of the poems specified, Mr. Moore has presented himself to the public as a voluminous writer of prose, having entered the domain of fiction in the "Epicurean,"—of biography, in

the Lives of Sheridan, and Lord Byron, and Lord Edward Fitzgerald—of political and religious controversy, in the "Memoirs of Captain Rock," and "The Travels of an Irish Gentleman"—and of history, in the volumes on Ireland contributed to Dr. Lardner's "Cyclopædia." None of these works, in right of their execution, can rank as high as Mr. Moore's poems. The poet has long been in the enjoyment of a pension of 300*l.* per annum.

MUNTZ, GEORGE FREDERICK, Merchant and Political Reformer, M.P. for Birmingham, was born in 1794. He was one of the chiefs of the Birmingham Political Union that exercised so great an influence upon public opinion when the first Reform Bill was under discussion in Parliament. He was prosecuted for an alleged riot at the Church-rate meeting in 1837, and though convicted in the first instance, the proceedings were reversed as illegal when a higher legal tribunal was appealed to. Mr. Muntz is a Radical Reformer, and has advocated his views not only by word of mouth in parliament and at public meetings, but also by his pen in various published pamphlets. He is said to have made a large fortune by the invention of a mixed metal, cheaper than copper and adapted to ships' sheathing. He has strong opinions on the Currency question.

N.

NAPIER, CHARLES JAMES, the Conqueror of Scinde, born at Whitehall, August 10, 1782, is a son of Col. George Napier, and cousin of the well-known admiral of the same name. In infancy he was removed to Castletown, Kildare, and was long treated as a delicate child. His father, a thoroughly competent man, charged himself with his education, and in January 1794, before he was twelve years old, obtained for him a commission in the 33d Regiment. His first services to the country were rendered in the suppression of the Irish rebellion in 1798, during which he was aide-de-camp to Sir James Duff. He next served against the rebels who rose under Emmett in 1803. In 1804 he became a captain in the *50th regiment*, and two years after obtained a majority. He

commanded the 50th through Sir John Moore's retreat to Corunna, as well as at the battle. During this action one of the enemy's guns was observed to be making havoc with our men — it was the very one by a shot from which Moore fell. To take this gun Napier advanced over broken ground, through walled gardens, armed with a musket and calling upon his men to follow. Three of these fell in the attempt, and the fourth was wounded. Napier, who turned round to assist him, was struck by a musket-ball, which broke the outer bone of his leg. He was compelled to throw down the musket, and try to hobble back to his regiment, using his sword as a walking-stick. Just at this moment one of the enemy pierced him in the back with a bayonet. The wound not being deep he was able to turn round and disarm his antagonist, when the latter was rejoined by several of his comrades, whom, however, Napier kept at bay until he was felled by another French soldier, who just then came up and struck him with a sabre on the skull. The soldiers were about to despatch him, when he was saved by the intervention of a drummer who had witnessed the scene, and Napier was taken to the rear as a prisoner. Soult received him with kindness, and as soon as he was sufficiently recovered, suffered him to go to England on parole. When he arrived in this country, he found his friends in mourning for his death, and actually administering to his estate. At the Coa, Napier was again to be found fighting as a volunteer. Two horses were here shot under him, and at Busaco he was shot through the face. He was compelled to travel a hundred miles to Lisbon for efficient surgical assistance, when the bullet was extracted from behind his ear. He recovered, and was at the siege of Fuentes, and in the second siege of Badajoz. In 1813 he served in the expedition to the Chesapeake, having a year before been made lieutenant-colonel. He was not called to take any part in the battle of Waterloo; he, nevertheless, made all haste to join the army as a volunteer, but arrived on the field three days after that event. He accompanied the English army to Paris, and was at the storming of Cambray. In the year 1824, having been a year on the Ionian staff, he was appointed Lieut.-governor of Cephalonia. In 1839 he was appointed to command the northern military district of England. In 1841 he was appointed to command the troops in the Bombay

Presidency. In 1842 he was sent to Scinde, to keep open the communications between the columns of Generals Nott, English, and Pollock, then advancing into Affghanistan. Here he had to fight at an immense disadvantage. Upon one occasion, with but 2000 men, he encountered the Belochee force of 35,000. Napier defeated this disproportioned army, with a loss of 20 officers and 250 rank and file, while the enemy lost 6000. At the battle of Hyderabad he broke the power of the Ameers, six of whom delivered up their costly swords, which Napier returned. His exploits in this campaign called forth the praise of the Duke of Wellington, who declared he had never heard of anything like them. One feature of his proceedings in Scinde should not be forgotten. Napier, for the first time in the practice of the British army, inserted in his despatches the names of the private soldiers who had distinguished themselves in arms. Shortly after the taking of Hyderabad, while Napier was engaged in an expedition against a Belochee chief, a powder magazine blew up and killed or wounded all who stood round him. His own clothes were singed, and his sword was broken in his hand, but he escaped unhurt. He was appointed governor of the newly-acquired territory, and abolished their slavery, the suttee, and the practice of infanticide. He opened canals for hundreds of miles, and directed commerce and industry into newly-discovered channels. Lord Ellenborough said at the Cheltenham banquet,—"There never has been, is, or will be, any name so great as Sir Charles Napier's in Scinde, because no name but his is associated with justice—and justice to all men in the exercise of the most unlimited power and authority; and no man has imputed to him an act of injustice in the exercise of it." In the spring of 1849, when the disasters of the last Sikh campaign had awakened the anxieties of the people of England, and all eyes were directed to the Hero of Scinde, by the advice of the Duke of Wellington, Napier was appointed to the command of the Indian army, and on the 24th of March, 1849, set out, and embarked at Dover. When he arrived, the object of the war had been attained. He, however, exerted himself in reforming the flagrant abuses which had grown up in the army, especially among the officers. Having remained in India about two years, he resigned his command and returned to England. Sir Charles

Napier has done, perhaps, more to reform the British army than any man living. Debt and idleness in officers have had no greater enemy than he has proved. The simplicity of his style of living enables him to enforce his admonitions on these heads with peculiar power. This trait was amusingly exemplified on occasion of the arrival of the messenger who bore the despatch from the India House, announcing his appointment to the chief commandership of the Indian forces. The door of his temporary residence in Berkeley Street was opened by a female servant, who, in answer to the eager inquiries of the bearer of the despatch, asserted that neither Sir Charles Napier nor his lady was at home. This was perplexing to the messenger, who had been charged to deliver the despatch into the hands of either Sir Charles or Lady Napier. While engaged in altercation with the servant in the hall, a door at the head of the stairs was suddenly opened, and the veteran himself appeared. "I am Sir Charles Napier," said he, "but as we are at present at dinner, and I have no second room to show you into, you had better call again." The surprised messenger announced his errand, and the despatch was soon safely lodged in Sir Charles own hands.

NAPLES. FERDINAND II. KING OF THE TWO SICILIES, was born Jan. 22, 1810, the son of Francis I. by his second wife, Isabella-Maria, infanta of Spain, and succeeded to the throne, November 8, 1830. He found the country in a most deplorable condition by reason of the maladministrations of former reigns, as well as of the confiscations of private property which had taken place to gratify the military. Civil liberty and interior security were alike wanting. The brigands with whom Murat had been able to deal successfully were the terror of the population, and a contemptible aristocracy oppressed the nation, while the public treasury was empty. When the young king ascended the throne, the excitement induced by the French revolution was producing a not unsalutary effect upon a few arbitrary governments, and probably the expulsion of his kinsman from France was not without influence upon this young Bourbon. He amnestied a number of exiles, and declared that in the future distribution *of offices, the Government* would look less at the political views *and more at the* capacities of candidates. He also ordered

the publication of all documents calculated to throw light upon the finances of the state, and promised measures of economy and reductions of taxation. The traditional ideas of his race, however, revived in a very brief space; Austria, the aristocracy, and the priesthood, became his favourite councillors; and from 1832 to 1848 no year can be said to have elapsed in real tranquillity. At length, on the 12th of January, 1848, the king's birthday, a formidable revolt took place at Palermo. The troops, at first, made scarcely any show of resistance. On the night of the 13th shells and round shot were fired on the city from the fort of Castelmare, but at the intercession of several consuls the fire was suspended. After a delay of twenty-four hours the struggle recommenced, but without result. On the 20th a steamer brought from Naples decrees reorganising the Council of State, opening up public offices to Sicilians, and promising to provincial councils a voice in local affairs. The Sicilians demanded the constitution of 1812, with a parliament at Palermo. On the 28th January the king issued a decree to the subjects of the whole realm, promising a constitution. Hostilities meanwhile continued in Sicily, which had now come to insist upon a separate administration. Messina joined the insurrection, and it is computed that, on the 7th of March, no fewer than 5000 projectiles were discharged from the citadel and Fort Salvador, and from the city in return. On the 14th of May, the deputies who had been returned to the Neapolitan Chambers met to discuss the nature of the oath to be taken to the new constitution. The King wished the latter to be sworn to *en bloc*, as he had promulgated it; but the deputies insisted upon swearing to it "without prejudice to any changes which may be made in it hereafter by the Chambers." A serious dispute ensued, in which neither party would give way. On the morning of the 15th barricades were erected in the streets, and the Royal Palace was garrisoned with troops, while artillerymen stood by their guns with lighted matches. The king hereupon declared that he acceded to the wishes of the Deputies, and called upon the National Guards to withdraw from the barricades and remove them. The latter replied that they would do so as soon as the royal decree was signed and issued, and not before. As invariably happens at such crises, "a musket of a National Guard went off by *accident*." The other guards thought that the Swiss troops

were attacking them, and fired a volley. A bloody fight now ensued, which lasted for eight hours; the Lazzaroni were let loose on the side of the king, and poignarded and plundered in all directions. The very dregs of the population were thus fighting on the side of the Government: the consequences may be imagined: a scene of havoc, such as only the historian of the Thirty Years' War could fitly depict, was enacted. At length Admiral Baudin, who was in the harbour, notified to the Government that if it were not ended he would land a force to restore order. The troops now ceased firing, the king was once more absolute, and the Chamber was dissolved. Naples was subdued, but Sicily remained. On the 29th of August a body of 15,000 soldiers sailed to Messina, and joined the royal troops in garrison. On the 20th of September an attack was made from the fire of the garrison, the fleet in the harbour, and a force which had landed on the shore. After a bombardment of four days, during which the people fought with heroic courage, the city was taken—a heap of ruins. The insurrection was not so readily put down in Palermo, the seat of the Provisional Government, and at the beginning of March, 1849, the king thought it expedient to offer to that body, on condition that it would lay down its arms and acknowledge his authority, a statute, or fundamental law, on the basis of the Constitution of 1812; an electoral law accompanied this proposition. The British and French ministers considered that the concessions conveyed in this offer were as large as the circumstances of the case demanded, and made the continuance of their mediation contingent upon their acceptance. The Provisional Government, having regard as much to the character of the king, and the probable realization of his promises, as to the nature of the latter, preferred the appeal to arms. On the 28th of March hostilities against the Sicilians were again resumed. Catania was taken by General Filangieri, after a bombardment which laid a great part of the city in ruins; Syracuse surrendered without resistance; and on the 22d of April, Palermo opened its gates to the king's forces. Since the fall of Rome and the re-establishment of Austrian supremacy in Lombardy, the tyrannies and atrocities of the Neapolitan Government have surpassed all belief. A brief sojourn in Naples and Sicily impelled that eminently Conservative statesman, Mr. Gladstone, to denounce with energy the foulness and

malignity of the Neapolitan state prosecutions, which have filled the galleys with senators and ministers of state, and sent half a parliament to expiate in chains its trust in a Bourbon. In 1851, Lord Palmerston appealed, in the name of humanity, to the continental powers generally, to use their influence to abate the system of universal proscription and exile; but in vain. In December, 1851, the courts were still sitting under a Neapolitan Jeffries, trying men for offences of 1848.

NASMYTH, DAVID, Painter. It has been said that Nasmyth has taken his quiet place amongst our landscape painters, and may rank almost as an English Hobbeman. A little more light in his pictures, and perhaps a selection of a better vehicle in which to paint, would have rendered them more agreeable to the amateur's eye, which has been accustomed to brighter attractions than are afforded by the somewhat sombre and Quaker-like tone which these modest works wear. But, on closer examination into the pictures, the admirable care and finish of the details, the various minuteness of foreground, foliage, cottage-wall, and garden-weed, the calm silvery tones of the delicately-painted distance, will strike everybody who examines the artist's rather rare works, and will strike us with the more admiration when we remember at what time this artist began to paint, and that he came after the sloven Morland, and the somewhat careless practitioners of the English school of that day.

NASSAU, ADOLPH, DUKE OF, born July 24, 1847, assumed the government on August 20, 1839. A constitutional government had existed in his states for many years before his accession to the throne, the nation being, however, represented, not in chambers elected by popular suffrage, but by the states of the realm. In 1848, however, a new constitution, upon a liberal basis, was proclaimed, and the duke declared his intention to govern by parliamentary means. For a time the experiment promised to succeed. The duke was one of the sovereigns who joined the union of German States under the presidency of the King of Prussia, which, after the failure of the Frankfort constitution, seemed likely to guarantee a certain amount of constitutional liberty in Germany. The reaction which carried away larger

states, however, overpowered Nassau. The duke, probably indulging his own predilections, went over to the Austrian party in 1850, and has since voted with it in the Diet. In November, 1851, the constitution was extinguished. In 1844 the duke married the daughter of the Grand-prince Michael of Russia. The younger line of his house is enthroned in the Netherlands.

NEWCASTLE, HENRY PELHAM CLINTON, DUKE OF, was born 22d May, 1811, and graduated at Christ Church, Oxford. Being then Lord Lincoln, he became M.P. for South Notts in 1832, and represented the county till 1846. He was a Lord of the Treasury from December 1834 till April 1835, and First Commissioner of Woods and Forests from September 1841 to January 1846, when he became Chief Secretary for Ireland; but resigned in July 1846. He unsuccessfully contested South Notts in February and March, 1846, and was returned for the Falkirk district of burghs in that year; was a member of Sir Robert Peel's party, and favourable to an endowment of the Irish Roman Catholic clergy; is a friend to agricultural improvement.

NORMANBY, CONSTANTINE HENRY PHIPPS, MARQUIS OF, Diplomatist and an ex-Viceroy of Ireland, was born May 15, 1797. He was educated at Harrow and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his degree before he was nineteen. On coming of age he married Maria, eldest daughter of Lord Ravensworth, and entered Parliament for the borough of Scarborough. In the House of Commons he at once took a course of political action opposed entirely to the traditions of his family, which, from the days of Colonel Phipps, who died at the head of his Cavalier followers fighting for Charles I. to the father of Lord Normanby, had always voted against Liberal principles. His first speech was delivered on the Catholic question, and was considered a great parliamentary success. Lord John Russell's earliest proposed resolutions on Reform were seconded by Lord Normanby, in a speech which went much farther than the formal resolutions he was seconding. Shortly after this he felt so strongly the unpleasantness of opposing the views of his father (the former friend of Pitt), while indebted to him for a seat, that he retired for a time into private life, and

withdrew to the Continent. He resided two years in Italy, and on his return wrote several pamphlets in behalf of Reform in Parliament. In 1822 he again entered the House of Commons, as member for Higham Ferrers. Here, the representative of one of the most insignificant constituencies of the country, he again exerted himself to procure the endowment of the great towns with the electoral franchise, and the purification of the House of Commons. Having brought forward a motion for abolishing the office of second or joint Postmaster-general, he was met by ministers with the bold assertion that sinecure offices were necessary to the maintenance of the influence of the Crown. Immediately after a circular letter was discovered, addressed by the Secretary of the Treasury to the members of the Government party, in which Lord Althorp, Lord Normanby, and Mr. Creevy, were denounced as having combined to ruin the influence of the Crown. Lord Normanby's conduct was spirited and able: he brought the whole matter before the House, and carried an address to the Crown upon the subject. The joint Postmaster-generalship was soon afterwards abolished. On the 7th of April, 1831, Lord Normanby was called to succeed his father in the earldom of Mulgrave. The long illness of his father had prevented him from taking an active part in the excitement of the Reform-bill agitation. In the House of Lords, however, he exerted himself to induce the hereditary Legislature to yield to the national demands for a renovation of the Constitution. In 1832, the troubles which had broken out in Jamaica demanded the presence of a Governor at once resolute and gentle. A rebellion had broken out in the island; the slaves were expecting from the Government some amelioration of their condition, and the new ministry were resolved to grant their emancipation. Lord Mulgrave was selected to fulfil the difficult mission of restoring peace and quiet, and to prepare negro and planter alike for the approaching change. Soon after his arrival the Unionist party had excited the soldiers to mutiny, and a scene of disgraceful confusion ensued. The Governor, addressing the troops, recalled them to a sense of duty, and the reign of order was secured. The Emancipation Act was carried in the Imperial Legislature; and Mulgrave, having won the confidence of all parties by his judicious, firm, and kind conduct in carrying out its provisions, returned to England.

He then accepted the office of Lord Privy Seal, which he held until the breaking up of the first Melbourne cabinet in 1834. When, in 1835, Lord Melbourne returned to office, Mulgrave was made Lord-lieutenant of Ireland. He landed in Dublin May 11th, determined to attempt an administration of the Government on the principle of equal and impartial justice to all parties, and became the most popular of viceroys. He removed from the bench a crowd of magistrates, who only used their office to oppress the king's subjects because they were of another party or creed; abated the practice of entrusting the dominant clergy with the administration of justice; substituted the civil for the military force on Court errands, and at the same time strengthened the law by reforming the executive system, and uniting in it Catholics as well as Protestants, and making all feel that the law was no longer an enemy but a powerful friend. O'Connell said of him, that he was the best Englishman Ireland had ever seen. In April, 1839, he resigned the Irish Lieutenancy, and was Secretary for the Colonies from September to December of that year, when he became Home Secretary, and held this office until September 1841. He was appointed Ambassador for France in 1846, and still holds that high appointment. In his younger days he wrote several novels, entitled "Yes and No," "Clarinda," "Matilda," "The Contrast," "The Prophet of St. Paul's," &c.

OLDENBURG, AUGUSTUS-PAUL-FREDERICK, GRAND-DUKE OF, was born July 13, 1783, at Rastede. After the occupation of Oldenburg by the French, he went with his father, Duke Peter-Frederick-Louis, to Russia, in 1811, where his younger brother George was governor of Novgorod. He took an active part in the War of Liberation. In the year 1813 he became governor of Reval, capital of the Russian government in Esthland, where he will be remembered as having abolished personal slavery. A year after his return to Oldenburg, in 1816, he married the Princess Adelaide of Anhalt-Bernberg-Schaumberg, who died in 1820. In 1825 he married her sister Ida, who died in 1828. In 1831 he married *Cecily, daughter* of Gustavus-Adolph, the former *King of Sweden.* His eldest daughter is married to Otho, *king of Greece.* His government has been characterised by

mildness, and a disposition to adopt administrative reforms. In 1848 he granted a popular constitution, which he has since withdrawn in what, in Germany, is considered an honourable and legal manner.

OTHO I., KING OF GREECE, the second son of the ex-King Louis of Bavaria, was born at Salzburg, June 1, 1815. He was educated at Munich by Councillor Œttl, with the assistance of Schelling, Thiersch, and other distinguished men. Afterwards he took several journeys into Germany and Italy. He was chosen King of Greece by virtue of the authority committed by the Greek people to France, Great Britain, and Russia (allied by the preliminary convention signed at London July 6, 1817), by the treaty of London, May 7, 1832, ratified at Munich by the King of Bavaria, May 27 of the same year. He accepted the crown October 5, 1832, and ascended the throne January 25, 1833 (February 6, new style). A loan of sixty million francs was also guaranteed by the contracting powers. A commission of regency, consisting of three members, was nominated to exercise the supreme authority until he should arrive at the age of twenty-one; and M. de Maurer, one of the persons so designated, was charged with the duty of instructing the young monarch in the fundamental principles of politics and legislation. After having transferred the seat of government from Nauplis to Athens, he took the reins of government by a proclamation dated June 1, 1835, the same day promoting the Count of Armansperg, former President of the Commission of Regency, to the office of Chancellor of the kingdom; changed the ministry; issued a decree relative to the division of lands among the Palicares, and ratified the treaty of commerce concluded with Austria,—all measures which produced the liveliest satisfaction in the nation. On the 22d November, 1836, he espoused the Princess Amelia of Oldenburg, but is as yet without issue. The reign of his Greek majesty has not been of the most prosperous character. The party of the defeated candidate, Capo d'Istrias, troubled the early years of his reign: the Regency, too, disgusted the nation by its bureaucratic mode of administration, and especially by the German character which it lent to the Government. Each of the great powers, moreover, sought to abuse its claims to gratitude, by exercising an influence

too strong to allow of the growth of an independent national policy. In 1837 the National Party, as the Opposition called itself, came into power as one Zographos; the Bavarian troops were sent home, as well as the swarm of German functionaries who filled every office; but the ministry did not succeed in consolidating the Government, or improving its finances, which had fallen so low, through the expensive system of previous governments, that the funds for the payment of the third series of the loan were wanting in 1837. In 1843 the ill results of this extravagance, which were manifest in all kinds of interior disorganisation, became apparent in the foreign relations of the Government. In August of that year the Emperor of Russia, who had, it must be said, favoured the plots of a powerful party against the Government, and thus probably rendered much defensive expenditure necessary to the Greek ministers, addressed a very menacing note to Greece, insisting upon a reduction of expenditure, and the payment of the interest on the loans. Many economies were now effected — some useless offices were abolished—a more reasonable budget appeared the next year. The root of the evil was, however, left untouched —the support withdrawn from useful institutions was by far larger, in pecuniary amount, than the expenditure maintained upon worthless objects. A joint note, drawn up by the three powers in September 1843, similar in tenor to that of Russia, by exhibiting the discontent of the protectors of the new king, encouraged the discontented at home. On the 15th September of that year, an insurrection broke out at Athens by night, and the troops entering, under Kalergis and Makryjanius, into the movement, the king was compelled to submit. He dismissed his minister, and named another, taken from the mis-called National Opposition, whose president was Metaxas, a man devoted to Russian interests. A royal decree convoked a constitutive assembly, and another authorised a commission to drive out all foreigners from the public service. The first consequence of this revolution was a total relaxation of the bands of social order, partial insurrections broke out on all sides, and brigandage fearfully increased. The new movement, however, had consequences *very different from* the thoughts of its originators; instead *of leading to the* abdication of the king, it brought about *the establishment* of a constitution, which certainly was no

part of the design of the Napistic party, and the Russian ambassador, Katakzy, compromised his Government to no profit. In October the new order of things was recognised by England and France, and in the following year by Russia. On the 30th March, 1844, the king took the oaths to the new constitution, since which time a marked amelioration has taken place in the government, although it cannot be said that the people are contented, the roads safe from brigands, or the finances in a healthy state. The complications which arose with the British Government—with the operations of the British fleet in the Piræus—are too vivid in the public mind to need description here.

OWEN, ROBERT, a Political Theorist, born in Wales. His chequered career is thus related by one of his admirers: —"At seven years of age he was usher, and at nine undermaster, of an elementary school in his native town. Next year he was in a neighbour's grocery and drapery shop, and then proceeded to Stamford to a draper's shop, supporting himself for four years, when he went to London, where in two years he was offered a half-partnership in the lucrative establishment he had joined, with the promise of the whole concern and adequate capital after a time; but he declined, and at eighteen became a partner in a cotton-spinning factory employing forty men, Arkwright's machinery being then introduced for the first time. Progressing in worldly prosperity, he commenced the Chorlton Mills, near Manchester, and selling those, took with his partners the celebrated New Lanark Mills, in Scotland, including its farm of one hundred and fifty acres and upwards of two thousand inhabitants. During more than a quarter of a century that he conducted this establishment, 'he was visited by emperors, kings, princes, archbishops, bishops, and clergy of every denomination, from all countries, to witness the unheard-of results produced on children and on a population of adults living in harmony, and governed only by the novel influence of well-directed kindness without punishment or fear.' In furtherance of his great object, 'to revolutionise *peaceably* the minds and practice of the human race,' Mr. Owen was invited in 1828, by the Mexican Minister and others interested in human progress, to go to Mexico, which he did (under the sanction and with the aid of the British

cabinet), to ask from the Mexican authorities the government of Coaguila and Texas, then undisputed provinces of Mexico, which had not the right of appointing governors to these provinces,—they were elected by the people. But they freely offered him a district extending one hundred and fifty miles in breadth, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific, along the line dividing the republic of North America from the republic of Mexico, and in which was included what is now called the golden region of California.' New Lanark was commenced in 1784 by Sir R. Arkwright, with David Dale of Glasgow, 'one of the most benevolent men of the last century,' and whose daughter Owen married, and commenced business there just half-a-century ago. All sorts of difficulties beset him, for he had to make profit for his partners and work at benevolence for himself. In ten years the gains, after paying 5 per cent capital, were 60,000*l.*, and he bought out his partners for 84,000*l.* His new partners, not content with a similar rate of profit, objected to this extraordinary expenditure for philanthropic purposes, which they ridiculed as visionary and impracticable; and the concern being put up four years after the second partnership, he purchased it for 114,000*l.*, which the partners aforesaid declared to be 20,000*l.* too cheap, they having realised in the four years 150,000*l.* profit. The majority of his new partners being men of much benevolence, he had everything his own way, and in 1816 commenced in earnest his great moral experiments." His friends laud these in the highest terms, but where are now the results? Since that period Owen has been less fortunate. He attempted to establish a New Moral Community, which failed, and a Labour-Exchange Bazaar, which was equally unsuccessful. He still has some followers, who preach the doctrines of their master's school.

P.

PALMERSTON, HENRY TEMPLE, VISCOUNT, an ex-Minister of State, was born 20th October, 1784. He was *eighteen years of* age when he succeeded to the title. He *was educated at* Cambridge, and in 1806, about the time of

Mr. Pitt's death, was elected member of parliament for the borough of Horsham. He ranged himself on the Ministerial side of the house, and supported the Government by his vote and influence. In the next parliament he was returned for Newport, in the Isle of Wight. Having joined the Portland administration in 1807, he was made one of the Lords of the Admiralty. In 1809, during the administration of Mr. Perceval, he obtained the office of Secretary-at-War, in the room of Sir James Murray Pulteney; and next year, vacating his seat for Newport, was elected for the University of Cambridge. He continued to fill the office of Secretary-at-War for nineteen years successively, namely, from October 1809, to May 1828, when he gave place to Sir Henry Hardinge, in consequence of the breaking up of Lord Goderich's cabinet. Some time prior to 1825 he was fired at and slightly wounded by a man, without his having given the least provocation; but on inquiry the man was proved to be clearly insane. The office which Lord Palmerston filled for so long a period, extending through the successive administrations of Perceval, Castlereagh, Liverpool, Canning, and Goderich, is one of acknowledged importance, and of no inconsiderable difficulty; and the best proof of his lordship's competency for discharging its functions is to be found in his continuing to retain it undisturbed amid the conflict of parties, and the perpetual changes which, in other offices, were continually taking place. It is pretty evident that Lord Palmerston, for much of this time, must have avowed Tory politics, and given his support to them. But it is equally plain that he latterly imbibed the more liberal principles of Mr. Canning; and after that lamented statesman's death he discovered an evident leaning towards the enlightened policy of Lord Goderich and Mr. Huskisson. Though, like the latter, he accepted the office of Secretary-at-War in the Wellington ministry, he took Mr. Huskisson's part in the *fracas* occasioned by that gentleman's vote on the East Retford question, and resigned his place on account of what he considered to be the arbitrary conduct of "the Duke" on that occasion. He aided the Peel and Wellington cabinet in the removal of the Catholic disabilities, a measure of which he was one of the most powerful advocates. When the first Reform Bill was introduced to the House of Commons, in 1831, by Lord John Russell, Lord Palmerston appeared among his supporters, and he continued

to give that measure his powerful support until the efforts of its promoters were finally crowned with success. This line of action cost him his seat for the University of Cambridge, which he had held since 1809. He was, however, returned, in 1831, for Bletchingley. In 1832 he sat for South Hants, but was defeated at the general election in 1834. In 1835 he was elected for Tiverton, which he continues to represent. He held the seals of the Foreign Secretaryship from 1830 until the dissolution of the Whig cabinet in 1834. In the April following he resumed that office, and resigned it again in 1841. With the return of the Whigs to office, in 1846, he again took the same office, which he resigned December 22, 1851. His lordship is one of the best-practised statesmen of which England can boast. The extent of his experience gives him a consciousness of superiority in his own department, which, during the last few years of his official career, was found most inconvenient by his colleagues, betraying itself in impatience of advice, and an unwillingness to submit his intentions to the cabinet. This is believed to have been the determining cause of his recent retirement from office. Shortly after the French Revolution of 1848, when what is commonly called "reaction" had set in all over continental Europe, Lord Palmerston became, to use a common but expressive phrase, "a marked man." He was, as far as his department was concerned, viz. Foreign Affairs, the independent minister of a free people; and he was, moreover, the most feared antagonist of that tortuous policy and of those unscrupulous politicians which had cost the late King of the French the loss of his crown, and had caused the expatriation of his family. These were grave offences in the eyes of despotism and political chicanery, in the eyes of the Metternichs, Manteuffels, Guizots, and the Thierses; and accordingly it was resolved to get rid of him as an "English Minister." It was his crime that he had acknowledged, readily and frankly, the French Republic in 1848; it was his crime that the cruel and perjured King of Naples was prevented from wholly devastating Sicily, and mercilessly slaughtering its inhabitants; that all sympathy for Hungary was not suppressed in British bosoms; that the butcheries of Windischgrätz, now disgraced—of Jellachich, whose disgrace has already begun—and of Haynau, whose disgrace has been consummated—were not extolled to the skies as

acts worthy of imitation all over the world; and, worst of all, it was his crime that the ruling policy of Russia since the time of Peter the Great, namely, the absorption of the European dominions of Turkey, and especially the capital of that state, Constantinople, was thwarted by him at the very moment when the game seemed to be altogether in the czar's hands. It was at this time that the public opinion of the country rallied to the side of a minister whom the Tories and a few of the extreme Radicals, for opposite and yet allied motives, combined to crush. A motion, condemning his policy, was proposed and carried, in 1850, in the House of Peers. The Government demanded the opinion of the Commons. A debate ensued, which was continued for several nights, and was remarkable as being the last occasion on which the late Sir Robert addressed the House of Commons. The departed statesman voted against him, while paying a tribute to his talents and character, in the exclamation—"We are all proud of him." Palmerston's conduct was approved by a considerable majority of the House. The spark once struck, the flame soon followed. The first expression of public feeling was the ceremony of presenting a portrait of Lord Palmerston to his lady. Then came meetings innumerable in all parts of the country in aid of his policy; next came a grand entertainment at the Reform Club, which must be looked upon as the exponent of the general feeling of the Liberal portion of the community, and that immense section of the British population which advocates progress. After this his lordship undertook an appeal to the common sense and humanity of the Continent, by sending to every European court Mr. Gladstone's well-authenticated account of the wholesale violation of decency and disregard of the first principles of society by the King of Naples, consisting in the arbitrary imprisonment of hundreds of senators, ex-ministers of state, judges, and patriots, who were subjected to horrible treatment by this ruler. In a letter addressed to Prince Castelcicala, Neapolitan Minister at this court, dated August 18, 1851, his lordship says: "I feel myself compelled to say that Mr. *Gladstone's* letters to Lord Aberdeen present an afflicting *picture of* a system of illegality, injustice, and cruelty, practised by the officers and agents of the government in the kingdom of Naples, such as might have been hoped would

not have existed in any European country in the present days; and the information which has been received upon these matters from many other sources leads, unfortunately, to the conclusion that Mr. Gladstone by no means overstated the various evils which he describes, but that Mr. Gladstone's letters were evidently written and published, not, as the pamphlet (Mr. Macfarlane's) which you send me insinuates, in a spirit of hostility to the King of Naples, or with feelings adverse to the parliamentary and monarchical constitution which his Sicilian Majesty has granted to his subjects, and has confirmed by his royal oath. Mr. Gladstone's object seems, on the contrary, to have been the friendly purpose of drawing public attention to, and of directing the force of public opinion upon, abuses which, if allowed to continue, must necessarily sap the foundation of the Neapolitan monarchy, and prepare the way for those violent revulsions which the resentments produced by a deep sense of long-continued and wide-spread injustice are sure sooner or later to produce. It might have been hoped that the Neapolitan Government would have received those letters in the spirit in which they manifestly were written, and would have set to work earnestly and effectually to correct those manifold and grave abuses to which their attention has thus been drawn. It is obvious that, by such a course, the Neapolitan government would do more to frustrate the designs of revolutionists, and to strengthen the monarchical institutions of their country, than could be effected by the most rigorous proceedings of the most vigilant Minister of the Police. But the Government of Naples will be much mistaken if it imagines that a pamphlet, consisting of a flimsy tissue of bare assertions and reckless denials, mixed up with coarse ribaldry and commonplace abuse of public men and political parties, will accomplish any useful purpose, or render any real service to the government on whose behalf it appears to have been written. And I must take leave to observe that there are admissions, direct and indirect, in Mr. Macfarlane's pamphlet, which go far to establish the conclusions which he professes an intention to overthrow." During the years 1849–50–51, Palmerston had rigorously exerted himself to obtain from the Porte the liberation of Kossuth, who had been in the first instance preserved from delivery to the Austrians by his influence. In the autumn of 1851 he suc-

ceeded in procuring the release of the great Hungarian and his fellow exiles, in spite of the opposition of Russia and Austria. Soon afterwards, a deputation from the districts of Islington and Finsbury waited on him with an address of thanks, containing some strong remarks on the conduct of the autocratic sovereigns. His lordship expressly guarded himself from appearing to adopt this language; but the fact that he did not altogether refuse the addresses so worded, and some little license of expression in which he indulged in his reply, (he talked of "bottle-holding" to the constitutional states), were laid hold of by Austria and Russia, and worked with great effect by the ministers of those courts, who demanded explanations of a nature which Palmerston was not likely to give. His lordship's resignation shortly after took place; whether because Lord John Russell made the *amende* refused by the Foreign Secretary, or for whatever other reason, the meeting of Parliament will probably disclose. Lord Palmerston has negotiated some of the most difficult affairs in modern European politics. One of these was the settlement of that intricate question in Belgian affairs, which followed so closely upon the steps of the French Revolution of 1830, and threatened to throw all Europe into convulsions; a settlement which realized the long-cherished dream of baffled statesmen, who, for upwards of a century, strove to interpose a barrier to the military compact of the great Northern powers. Such a consummation was reserved for Lord Palmerston, when he secured the tranquillity of Europe by the quadruple alliance of England, France, Spain, and Portugal. Never was there a period of greater difficulty than when Lord Palmerston, for the second time, pacified Europe by the solution of the Eastern question. It was on this occasion that the political prescience of the British Minister, the genius that characterises his diplomacy, shone forth in all its splendour. To guarantee the integrity of the Ottoman Empire by an Anglo-Russian alliance appeared a paradox. Such a seeming anomaly astounded the ordinary intellect of the multitude; even prudent and experienced statesmen were alarmed at the boldness of his conceptions, and the vigour and celerity with which they were executed. The case was urgent. France, shackled by the passionate craving of an inconsiderate public press, refused the weight and influence of her name; and it was

only after repeated unsuccessful attempts to subdue the obstinacy of the French cabinet, and not from choice or deliberate resolve, that Lord Palmerston had recourse to the extraordinary expedient of Russian co-operation. It is difficult to look with the same approbation upon his intervention to suppress the Liberal revolution in Portugal, which in effect brought back the Cabralists, and made Saldanha's military revolution a dangerous necessity. Upon his reported approval of Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état* public opinion is yet judging.

PAULDING, JAMES KIRKE, an American Novelist, was born August 22, 1779, at the town of Pawling, on the banks of the Hudson. After receiving a liberal education he settled at New York, where, except during short intervals, he has since resided. Connected with some of the first families of the city, with a good income sufficient for his wants, and living quiet, he would probably have been content with the pursuit of ease, had not the follies of the town provoked his powers as a satirist. The first series of "Salmagundi" was the production of Mr. Paulding and Washington Irving, with the exception of three by Irving's brother William, who was at the same time brother-in-law to Paulding. The success of this now well-known collection probably determined the devotion of its authors to literature. The publisher found it very profitable, as he paid nothing for the copy; and upon his refusing to make any remuneration for it, the work was suddenly and unexpectedly brought to a close. In 1813 Mr. Paulding published the "Lay of a Scotch Fiddle," a satirical poem; and in the following year, "The United States and England," in reply to the article on Inchiquin's Letters in the "Quarterly Review." The "Diverting History of John Bull and Brother Jonathan," the most successful of his satires, appeared in 1816. A part of this year was passed in Virginia, where he wrote his "Letters from the South," containing interesting sketches of scenery, manners, and personal character. In 1818 he published the "Backwoodsman," a poem; in 1819, a second series of "Salmagundi;" in 1823, "Königsmarke," a novel, founded on the history of the Swedish settlements in Delaware; in 1824, "John Bull in America;" and in 1826, "Merry Tales of the Three Wise Men of Gotham." The last work was

written to enforce Paulding's favourite idea, that the progress of mankind is more apparent than real. "The Book of St. Nicholas," a collection of stories purporting to be translated from the Dutch; "The New Pilgrim's Progress," and "Tales of the Good Woman, by a Doubtful Gentleman," came out in the three following years. "The Dutchman's Fireside" was published in 1831, and has ever been regarded as the best of his novels. It is a domestic story of the old French war. In the year following he published "Westward Ho!" a novel of forest life and Kentucky characters. In 1835 he published "Letters on Slavery," and next year a "Life of Washington," for youth. At the close of the second American war with England he resided some time at the seat of Government, and was subsequently many years navy agent for the port of New York. From 1837 to 1841 he was at the head of the Navy Department of the United States, under the Van Buren administration. He has since written "The Old Continental," a novel, and "Tales of Glauber Spa." His collected works make twenty-five volumes.

PEARCE, JAMES A., United States Secretary of the Interior, born in 1800, in the state of Maryland, and was elected a representative in Congress in 1835, again in 1837 and 1841—thus serving as a member of the House six years. In 1843 he was transferred to the Senate of the United States, and was re-elected at the expiration of his term in 1849; consequently, his present term does not expire until 1855. Mr. Pearce is a ready and eloquent debater, and second to but few of the Whig (Conservative) Senators in point of talent.

PHILLPOTTS, HENRY, the Champion of the extreme High-Church Party in the Church of England, Bishop of Exeter, Canon of Durham, Canon and Treasurer of Exeter, was born 1777. A local journalist says,—"It is curious enough, that George Whitfield, the celebrated preacher, who is associated with the Wesleys in the early history of Methodism, was born in the same house, the Bell Inn, Gloucester, in which the present Bishop of Exeter opened his eyes upon this world. But what a difference between the careers and characters of the two men! Henry Philpotts, the innkeeper's son, speechifying with bitterness among

peers and prelates in the House of Lords,— George Whitfield, the innkeeper's son, braving the fury of twenty thousand ruffians in Moorfields, at Whitsuntide, charming their madness into tears by the magic of his eloquence! Which was the Apostle?" The University honors of the future bishop were:— Magdalene College: Prizeman (Prose), 1795; M.A. 1798; B. and D.D. 1821. His early preferments:— the Rectory of Stanhope; Chaplain to the Bishop of Durham. His list of published works, beginning with "Letter on the Coronation Oath," "Letter to Charles Butler," might be extended to an indefinite extent, if the titles of all his controversial pamphlets were given. He has enjoyed the bishopric of Exeter since 1830.

PIUS THE NINTH (THE POPE) was born at Senegalia in 1792. Born of the noble family of Ferretti, he was originally intended for the army; but, it is said, that having fallen deeply in love with a young English lady at Rome, who refused the proffered alliance on the grounds of the difference in religion, young Ferretti resolved to retire from the world and devote himself to the church. For several years after his ordination he devoted himself to pastoral duties with an exemplary self-devotion that won universal esteem. He was nominated by Pope Pius the Seventh on a mission to the government of Chili, in South America, shortly after the recognition of the independence of that republic. The duties of this mission, which were both delicate and important, were performed with discretion and success; and immediately on his return to Rome, he was appointed by Leo XII. to one of the most important of the ecclesiastico-civil departments of administration in the city of Rome. Some time after the accession of Gregory XVI. to the Papal throne, he was sent as apostolic nuncio to Naples; and while the cholera was raging there in 1836, he personally visited the hospitals and houses of the sick, disposed of his plate, furniture, and equipage, and distributed the proceeds among the poorer victims of that disease. During the whole period of the epidemic, he was incessantly employed night and day in administering the consolations of religion, as well as assistance from his purse. In these visits he always went on foot, replying to *those who remonstrated* with him on its impropriety in these *remarkable words*, "When the poor of Jesus Christ die in

the streets, his ministers ought not to ride in carriages." His name is still idolised by the poorer inhabitants of that city, who will long remember with gratitude his disinterested efforts to alleviate their sufferings. In 1840 he was created Cardinal Archbishop of Imola, in the Romagna, where much political disaffection existed. However, he devoted himself to the duties of his diocese with so much zeal and self-denial, and displayed such a liberality of sentiment, that he soon gained the affections of the people, and restored peace and tranquillity to the district. During the six years of his episcopacy he was only twice absent from his charge—once on going to Rome to receive his hat as cardinal, and again when summoned to attend the conclave for the election of a successor to the pontifical chair. Pope Gregory XVI. died on the 1st of June, 1846. On Sunday the 14th, the cardinals went with great pomp in procession into conclave. The following day news circulated through Rome that a new Pope was chosen. It has been said that the election of Cardinal Ferretti was carried by acclamation. This, however, does not appear to have been the case. There were three scrutinies. At the first ballot, Cardinal Lambruschini—the stern and cruel minister of Gregory XVI.—had a majority of votes, but not sufficient for a decision. Thirty-four votes were the number required for an election. The cardinals, alarmed at the prospect of the election of the unpopular Lambruschini, and fearing the consequences of the existing disaffection of the inhabitants of the Roman States, withdrew their votes on the third scrutiny from Lambruschini, and hastily transferred them to Cardinal Ferretti, who happened to be one of the three cardinals charged with the opening of the voting papers. On opening the thirty-fourth, which gave *him* the necessary majority, his emotion was so great that he fainted. On the morning of Tuesday the 16th of June, at nine o'clock, Cardinal Camerlengo appeared in the balcony of the Quirinal to announce the exaltation of Cardinal Mastai Ferretti to the papacy, under the name of Pius the Ninth. So long as Austria was powerful enough to command a military supremacy in Italy, it had been her policy to crush every movement that promised the slightest approach to a constitutional system. The sub-division of the peninsula into *petty states* favoured this policy, and gave her a dicta-

torial power over both princes and people. This power was exercised to retard every improvement; and notwithstanding the most urgent protest on the part of enlightened men, this system was persevered in until an almost fanatical desperation had sprung up amongst all classes of civilians and a considerable proportion of the unbeneficed clergy. So intolerable had become the system of government in the Papal states, before the death of Gregory XVI., that nothing but the iron hand of Austria could have kept him on his throne. It was under these circumstances that Pius IX. assumed the pontifical government. The new Pope set to work immediately to popularise himself, by favouring the hopes and wishes of his people; and the enthusiasm not only of the Romans, but of the whole Italian people, was raised to the highest pitch. The disgraceful proscriptions and imprisonments of the previous reign afforded him a graceful opportunity of inaugurating the new era by an act of mercy and justice. An amnesty was proclaimed for all political offenders, with very trifling exceptions, and was supposed to have restored about 3000 of noble and respectable citizens to their families and friends. A great many offices to which formerly Churchmen only were eligible were at once thrown open to the laity. The freedom of the press and the public administration of justice were conceded, and various other reforms were proposed, in spite of the remonstrances of the Austrian ambassadors, and every possible opposition on the part of the Sacred College. Owing to the state of confusion in every department of the public service, these acts of justice were not only difficult but also dangerous. Though the great bulk of the people, and many of the nobility, went hand-in-hand with him, yet he was vigorously opposed by the leading clergy, who had so long enjoyed the exclusive monopoly of all the patronage of the State. But the Pope was not to be deterred from pursuing what he thought was the path of duty; and seeing his determination, and enraged thereat, his opponents entered into a conspiracy to cause a tumult, and to take advantage of it to further their own views; but, happily, all was discovered, and the plot prevented. For a considerable time the name of Pius resounded over Europe, and was hailed with enthusiasm by every true friend to liberty. No doubt the Pope was anxious to give his people beneficial and practical reforms, but, from his secluded

life, he had no idea of the strong hold which democratic principles had taken on the Italian mind, and believed it possible to construct such a government with the moderate party as would give his subjects all good and practical reforms, while at the same time it enabled him to resist the broader demands of the more democratic party. But the French Revolution of February 1848 took place, and gave a new direction to the enthusiasm, not only of the Italian patriots, but of the friends of liberal institutions all over Europe, awakening a demand, not for administrative reforms alone, but for popular systems of representative government. These sweeping changes the Pope was not prepared to concede, and from that moment his popularity began to wane. A policy of reaction was attempted, which only tended to widen the breach, and to increase the agitation for these organic changes. The heart of all Italy was set on expelling the Austrians. Pius IX. would probably not have been sorry to see them depart, could he have been assured of the safety of his chair. He even went so far as to countenance the formation of a Roman legion of volunteers, to which he appointed Gavazzi chaplain; at least these things were done in his name. But it is certain that he shrunk from the decisive step, and recalled the troops before they had encountered the common enemy. At length he took for his minister Count Rossi, one of the most aristocratic and unpopular men in Rome. When Rossi was placed at the head of the ministry, the fury of the people could with difficulty be kept from breaking out into open violence. On the 15th of November he went to open the Chamber of Deputies, and his proud and haughty spirit urged him to brave with gesture and expression the hatred and hostility of the assembled multitude. The result was soon seen. Though surrounded by a strong military escort, a tumult took place at the door of the Chamber, and in a moment Count Rossi fell by the hand of an assassin, who escaped. Next morning an immense multitude took up arms, marched to the Pontifical Palace, and demanded a change of ministry and various organic reforms. The Pope temporised, but the day of hesitation was gone by; war had begun, and whoever was not for Italy was against her; the people insisted on an immediate and definite answer, which was refused. The Pope had made his election: *he* loved the temporal power of the Apostolic chair

more than country. A collision took place between the people and the Swiss Guards, who were on duty, and after a short but severe contest the people were victorious. Rome was now in a state of the greatest excitement: the popular forces filled the street, but no one thought of harming the Pontiff. In the midst of these scenes the diplomatic corps arrived to offer their services to the Pope. He received them with his usual calm and courtesy. However, the ignorant and hasty Swiss closed the doors, and fired from the windows, wounding five or six persons. A rumour was at the same time disseminated through the crowd that a prelate had been seen with two pistols in his hands, and that he had fired at the people; their excitement and anger redoubled. It was then that M. Martinez de la Rosa offered, in the name of old Catholic Spain, and of his sovereign, to place a vessel at the Pope's orders, and to give him an asylum in Spain. The ambassador of the French republic also said: "I have not received any instructions to that effect, but I do not fear to be disavowed if I offer to the Holy Father my assistance to protect him and secure his withdrawal." However, outside Cicerovacchio was calming down the popular frenzy; the few troops on whom Pius IX. thought he could reckon to support him against the nation fraternised with the assailants; the Transteverins did not stir. Several times the Pope wished to satisfy himself if some persons remained faithful to his cause, either in the troops or in the population, but he found none. "You see," said the Pope to the ambassadors, "all is impossible." A list of a new ministry was then presented to the Pope; "I cannot sign that," he said; "it is against my conscience." Meanwhile, the crowd augmented, the danger increased, and at last, about seven o'clock, the signature was given. Rome was then illuminated, and the people went through the streets crying out—"The Sovereign has given us the Republic." The Pope now handed to the foreign diplomatic body the following protest:—"I am, gentlemen, a prisoner. They have taken away my guards, and I am surrounded by other persons. My conduct at this moment, when all support fails me, is based on the principle of avoiding the effusion of all fraternal blood. I make all yield to this principle; but know, gentlemen, and let all Europe and all the world know likewise, that I do not take, even nominally, any part in the acts of the new Government.

to which I consider myself as altogether a stranger. I have, however, desired that my name should not be abused, and I wish that they would not even employ the ordinary formalities." After these events, the Pope remained a prisoner in his palace, under the charge of the Civic Guard, but uniformly declined sanctioning any act of the Government, which was still conducted in his name. On the 24th of November Pius escaped from the Quirinal in the disguise of a footman of the Bavarian minister, and arrived safely next day at Gaeta, the first town in the Neapolitan territory, whither he was followed by the diplomatic corps. On the 27th he sent to Rome an ordonnance, declaring void all the acts of the Government, and superseding it by a state commission. This manifesto the Roman Chambers treated with contempt, appointed a provisional government, and set about improving the important victory which they had achieved. The Pope remained long at Gaeta, an object of sympathy as the head of the Catholic Church with his own spiritual adherents, and of pity with all liberal men, that he had lost the golden opportunity of raising the name of Pio Nono to a greater height than churchman had ever yet attained as a friend to the progression of mankind. His subsequent declarations have proved that Pius IX. was never more than an administrative reformer. He had no confidence either in his people or in himself. For eighteen months after his flight from Rome he lived at the royal palace of Portici, about four miles from Naples. On the 4th of April, 1850, he left Portici, escorted by Neapolitan and French dragoons, and accompanied by the King of Naples, and several members of his family. He crossed the frontier at Terracina on the 6th, and entered Rome on the 12th amidst the thunder of French cannon. His subsequent government at Rome has been a melancholy exhibition of priestly administration in its worst features of rapacity and imbecility, maintained by the terror of foreign arms.

PORTUGAL, MARIA-DA-GLORIA, QUEEN OF, daughter of the late Emperor of Brazil, Dom Pedro I., by his first *consort*, the Archduchess Leopolden of Austria, was born at *Rio de* Janeiro, April 4, 1819. On the death of her grand-*father*, John VI., she was designated successor to the *crown of* Portugal by virtue of the act of renunciation exe-

cuted by Pedro, one of the provisions of which was that, upon coming of age, she should marry her father's brother, Dom Miguel, whom it was desired, as a dangerous competitor for the throne, to satisfy by such arrangement. Another condition was, that she and her future husband should acknowledge the new constitution. When Dom Miguel had accepted of this arrangement, had sworn to the constitution, been betrothed to the child Donna Maria, and received the regency, the young queen left Brazil, in 1828, to sail for Europe. Miguel had, meanwhile (June 30, 1828), declared himself absolute king of Portugal, and forbade the queen to land. She was now compelled to come to England, where she was received by the court as lawful queen of Portugal, but found no actual support, the ministry of the day secretly favouring the usurper. In 1829 she returned to Rio Janeiro, with Amelia of Leuchtenberg, her subsequent stepmother, and lived there until 1831, when her father found himself compelled to resign the crown of Brazil to his son, Pedro II. She then resided in Paris, while her father waged war for her rights in Portugal. After the taking of Lisbon, in Sept. 1833, she made her entry into that city. On the 29th of May, 1834, Miguel renounced his claims, and retired to Italy, where he recalled his renunciation, and was acknowledged by the Pope king of Portugal. Pedro now administered the government as regent and guardian of his daughter. His power, however, was soon exhausted; and when, on the 18th of September, 1834, he announced to the Cortes that he was no longer able to conduct the government, that assembly declared the queen of full age, by which means the intrigues of the competitors for the regency were defeated. Maria now occupied herself with thoughts of marriage. Her choice fell upon Duke Charles-Augustus-Eugène-Napoleon, of Leuchtenberg, who already had won her affections. On the 8th of November she was married by proxy, at Munich, to this prince; and on January 27 of the following year in person. Dom Augustus, prince of Portugal as he was named, was made commander of the army, and was likely to become popular, when he died suddenly, March 28, 1835. On the 9th of April, 1836, she was married a second time to Duke Ferdinand, son of Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Cohary, who, upon the birth of a crown-prince, was named king. In the course of the next ten years the corruptions of

the Government, which had fallen into the hands of the Cabrals, the suppression of the liberty of the press, and the increase of taxes, irritated a large portion of the nation. In May, 1846, civil war broke out in the upper Minho, and in a few weeks several districts were in arms against the Cabral ministry. The brothers resigned, and retired from the kingdom. The Chamber of Deputies was dissolved, and Grand Cortes extraordinarily convoked, and a number of concessions were made. The Duke de Palmella was called to power, and held office with Saldanha for four months, when his cabinet was succeeded by a new ministry under Saldanha's premiership. Civil war, meanwhile, continued. Das Antas, the commander nominated by the Juntas, and supported by Bandiera, Louli, and Fournos, gained several successes, and it was feared that the queen and king would have to leave Portugal, and seek safety in England. In November, however, the popular party were in turn defeated, and lost two whole regiments by desertion. In the ensuing year, the mediation of the British Government was offered, and accepted by the queen, but declined by the Junta. Das Antas now prepared to evacuate Oporto. The British fleet under Sir Thomas Maitland was off that city. Steamers belonging to the Junta were permitted to enter and embark Das Antas' troops. On the 31st of May, 1847, a corvette and three armed steamers, one barque, one brig, two schooners, transports, containing in all about 3000 troops, left the port. On crossing the bar they were summoned to surrender to the British, and as resistance would have been useless they did so without firing a shot. As soon as he was on board the British ship, the Conde das Antas presented to the commander a protest in the name of the Portuguese nation against this act of hostility, without declaration of war, or any pretext for the same. By these means resistance to the royal authority was suppressed. The queen, in return for services rendered by Great Britain, signed an agreement excluding the Cabrals from power, and this was all the opponents of the court gained by the insurrection. As soon, however, as quiet had been restored, the Conde de Thomar, *the elder* of the Cabrals, again became premier in the face of *Great Britain*, and continued a career of oppression and corruption until, in 1851, the Duke de Saldanha carried out a military revolution and reconstituted the government.

Donna Maria yielded with a very bad grace to the necessities of her position. Her husband had been appointed commander-in-chief at the commencement of the outbreak, and actually advanced against Saldanha, but was forced to make a speedy and solitary retreat to Lisbon, his troops having deserted him on his march.

PRESCOTT, WILLIAM HICKLING, an eminent American Historian, was born in Salem, Massachussets, in 1796, the son of an able lawyer, and grandson of that Prescott who commanded the American troops at Bunker's Hill. When he was twelve years of age his family removed to Boston, where Prescott has since resided, and where his classical training, begun in the land of his birth, was continued with success by Dr. Gardiner, a pupil of Dr. Parr. In 1811 he entered Harvard College, and graduated there in 1814, with honours appropriate to his favourite studies, and with an intention to devote himself to the legal profession. But the great misfortune of his life had already befallen him. Before he had graduated, an accidental blow had deprived him of the sight of one eye, and the natural consequence soon followed. The other became weakened by the increased labour thrown upon it; and, after a severe illness, during which he was entirely blind, he found the sight of his remaining eye so much impaired, that he was compelled to give up his professional studies and hope of success at the bar. The two next years he spent in Europe, travelling for health in England, France, and Italy, and seeking the aid of the greatest oculists of London and Paris. He returned to America with renovated health, but for his great misfortune found no relief. Still he was not disheartened, but turned with alacrity to those studies which remained yet within his reach. He resolved to become, in the best sense of the word, an historian, and freely gave himself ten years to prepare for the task he had always loved. He then selected his subject, and, having done this, gave ten years more to his "History of Ferdinand and Isabella," one of the few important periods in the affairs of modern Europe that seemed to invite the hand of a master. With this, in 1838, at the age of forty-two, he appeared before the world as an author, publishing simultaneously in London and Boston. His work was received, on both sides of the

Atlantic, with unhesitating applause. It has since run through several editions, and been translated into German, Italian, French, and Spanish. During his labour on this work, Mr. Prescott's vision had been somewhat improved by a diminution of the sensibility which had led to earlier inflammations, and which had compelled him to live in a darkened apartment, relying entirely on a reader when collecting his materials. His "Conquest of Mexico," therefore, first printed in 1843, though prepared largely from manuscript documents, was perhaps a work of less troublesome toil than his first had been. The prompt honours that it received were even more brilliant than those paid to the "Ferdinand and Isabella," and having before been admitted to several of the distinguished academies of Europe, he was now elected a member of the French Institute. His "Conquest of Peru" appeared in 1847; it is marked by the same striking events which distinguished its predecessors, and is, with the exception of a volume of collated miscellanies, his last work. It is understood that he is now engaged in writing a "History of Philip II."

PROCTER, BRYAN WALTER, (better known as BARRY CORNWALL), Poet and Lunacy Commissioner, issued his first book in 1815. It was a small volume of dramatic sketches, completed with much care and skill, and betraying a more natural manner than is usual in such productions. In 1821 he produced a tragedy, entitled "Mirandola," which, being played at Covent Garden Theatre, enjoyed a temporary success. He is the author, also, of "Marcian Colonna," "The Flood of Thessaly," and a number of songs; which latter are, in truth, his most successful, and will probably be his most lasting, productions. He is a barrister, and enjoys the post of Commissioner of Lunacy.

PUSEY, EDWARD BOUVERIE, Theologian, and, with Dr. Newman, founder of the Anglican party in the Church of England called Puseyite. About eighteen years ago he commenced, in conjunction with Dr. Newman, the publication of *the work* called "Tracts for the Times," in which great *learning* and the most subtle reasoning were brought to bear *in supporting* a theory of church worship based upon the *doctrines* of apostolical succession, and attributing an efficacy

to the sacraments of the church not inferior to that claimed exclusively by the Church of Rome. These attempts to Romanise the Protestant Church of England led, in 1843, to his suspension from the work of a preacher for four years. Against this suspension he protested. He is Regius Professor of Hebrew, and canon of Christ Church. Since the desertion of his friend and coadjutor, Dr. Newman, to the Romish communion, Pusey has taken up a position rather more defensive with regard to Anglicanism, having been somewhat alarmed at the large secessions from the Church among the alumni of Oxford.

R.

RADETZKY, JOSEPH, COUNT, Commander of the Austrian army in Italy, was born at Trebnitz, in Bohemia, in 1766. His predilection for military adventures was early developed, and he commenced his military career on the 1st of August, 1781, as a cadet in a cavalry regiment. He was called to take part in the long struggle with Napoleon, and in 1786 became an ensign, and twelvemonths afterwards lieutenant. In 1793 he was made captain; and in 1796, major. In 1800 he obtained the colonelcy of the regiment of the Albert Cuirassiers; and in 1801 the rank of major-general. In 1809 he fought with distinction under the Archduke Charles at Agram and Erlingen. On the 27th of May, five days after the battle at the latter place, he received the appointment of Field-marshal-lieutenant, and chief of a regiment of Hussars. In the battles of 1813, 1814, and 1815, he gained honourable laurels, inasmuch as he defended the independence of his country; and at Kulm, Leipsic, and Brienne, exhibited great bravery. He has since been nothing more than the able executioner of a soul-crushing tyranny. Having been successively Governor of Ofen (Hungary), Olmutz (Moravia), and Lemberg (Poland), he was in 1822 appointed Commander-general of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Towards the close of 1847, the inhabitants of *Milan, disaffected* to the last degree to the Austrian Govern*ment, which they* regarded as the sign of foreign domination,

resolved to injure the revenue of their oppressors by abstaining from the use of tobacco, and the use of cigars by an Italian thus became the sign of an anti-patriotic feeling. To bring this cigar question to some kind of issue, on the 3d of January, 1848, a supply of cigars was furnished to the soldiers of the Milan barracks, that they might smoke them in the streets. As was doubtless expected, the people resented this affront, and frequent collisions between them and the military took place during the day. The soldiers used their arms, many were wounded, and some killed. On the 15th January, Radetzky issued from Milan a general order, warning them to prepare for a struggle,—"The efforts of fanatics and a false spirit of innovation will be shattered against your courage and fidelity like glass against a rock. My hand still firmly grasps this sword, which for more than sixty years I have carried with honour on so many fields of battle." In February the emperor announced, in a letter to Archduke Rainer, that he would make no further concessions to the Lombard provinces, and he relied on the courage of the troops to prevent any evil consequences. The French revolution was heard of at Milan, and the people, excited as they were, remained unmoved. But when the tidings of the revolution of Vienna came, the guard at the Government-house was attacked and overpowered, and O'Donnell, the vice-governor, made prisoner. Two days afterwards, on the 26th of March, the Austrian cannon swept the streets of Milan; but the people got the advantage in many points, and everywhere fought with courage. Radetzky now determined on a bombardment. The people had taken possession of the palace of the viceroy, and planted an immense Italian tricolour flag on the top of the cathedral. The people had secured as hostages the family of Director-general Torresano and Count Bolza. The hôtel of the military commandant-general was the only place which resisted the attempts of the people to obtain possession of it. On the night of the 22d it was evacuated, and the soldiers held only the gates of the city. Emissaries arrived from Pavia and Brescia, announcing that they were in open insurrection, and that Archduke Rainer's son was a prisoner. By means of balloons the surrounding population were summoned to come to the help of the Milanese, and to destroy all the roads and bridges by which artillery could be brought to Radetzky. On the

23d, armed peasants from Lecco took the Como and Tosa gates; the citadel was evacuated, and the Austrians retired in two columns on Verona and Mantua. "Soldiers!" said Radetzky, in a proclamation, "the treachery of our allies, the fury of an enraged people, and the scarcity of provisions, oblige me to abandon this city of Milan for the purpose of taking another line, from which, at your head, I can return to victory." He then retired to Cremona, with the intention of falling back upon Verona, there to await the arrival of reinforcements. On the 8th of April, Charles-Albert, who had now taken the field, forced the Austrian line on the Mincio, and, crossing the Adige, took up a position north of Verona. Radetzky was thus cut off from the valley of the Trent, and the Piedmontese army lay between him and Nugent, who was marching to his aid with 15,000 troops. Charles-Albert assigned to the Roman troops under Durando the duty of opposing this junction: but that general, disaffected to the patriotic cause, retired before the columns of Nugent, which joined their comrades at Verona, April 22d. On the 6th of May, a severe engagement took place between the Piedmontese and Austrians before the walls of Verona. The contest lasted from nine in the morning until five in the evening; but closed without any decisive result. On the 18th of May, the King of Sardinia attacked the fortress of Peschiera, which surrendered on the 30th. On the 29th, Radetzky had attacked the Tuscan and Neapolitan line, and driven the Piedmontese general, Bava, to Goito; but the next day Charles-Albert came up, and repulsed the Austrians along the right bank of the Mincio to the gates of Mantua. The king now took Rivoli after a sharp engagement; but while he was staying there, the old marshal appeared suddenly before Vicenza, which capitulated, and turned back to Verona just as Charles-Albert, thinking the place was abandoned, was proceeding to occupy it. By the end of June the Austrians had taken Padua and Palma Nuova; thus securing three communications with Vienna through the Tyrol. A succession of rapid attacks on the Sardinians now took place, and by the 27th of July they had abandoned every post on the line of the Mincio, except Peschiera. Radetzky occupied successively, Cremona, Pizzighetone, and Lodi; arrived at Milan, and received offers of capitulation from the chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety, while Charles-Albert was yet

in the city. On Sunday, the 6th of August, Radetzky entered Milan, signed an armistice for six weeks; Peschiera and Osappo were to be evacuated. An armistice, which continued to the end of the year, was signed by the marshal and the king. The Sardinian troops were to be permitted to return to their country, and this was all that their sovereign could obtain. "My army was almost alone in the struggle," complained Charles-Albert in his proclamation issued on the 10th of August; and this seems to have been the truth. On the 12th of March, 1849, a superior officer arrived in Radetzky's quarters at Milan, bearing a cabinet despatch, which announced the cessation of the armistice. The marshal at once issued a spirited proclamation to the army. "Soldiers," said he, "your most ardent wishes are fulfilled. The enemy has announced his intention to recommence hostilities. We are ready to meet him, and dictate in his capital the peace we generously offered. To arms, soldiers! Follow once more your old general to victory; follow me to Turin." Both the armies crossed the Ticino at the same moment on the 20th, each to invade the other's territory. Ramorino, who had been stationed on the bank to prevent Radetzky's passage, never struck a blow. The Sardinians were now compelled to withdraw their forces from the left bank. Radetzky gave the following account of the battle, which immediately followed, and decided the fate of the Italian cause:—"The hostile army, already (on the 24th of March) cut off from what was in reality their line of retreat, determined, with a force of 50,000 men, again to try the fortune of war in a position near Olengo, close to Novara. The second division, which formed the vanguard under General Aspré, marched on the 23d towards Olengo, and there encountered the enemy, whose unexpected force made the battle doubtful for some hours. I had placed the fourth division on the right flank of the enemy, and behind that the first, in order to take him completely in the rear, on the other side of the Agoyna. The Archduke Albrecht, commanding the vanguard division, kept the enemy at bay until Baron Aspré and Baron Appel, with the third division, brought up their forces on the two wings of that commanded by the Archduke Albrecht, while I ordered up the fourth division to support the centre. We succeeded in facing the enemy until the fourth division, under Field-marshal

lieutenant Thurn, acted so successfully on the enemy's right wing, on the other side of Agoyna, that this decisive manœuvre made the enemy retreat on all sides in great disorder, and seek shelter in the mountains in the direction of the north." Charles-Albert immediately abdicated, and the Duke of Savoy, now Victor-Emmanuel, king of Sardinia, concluded an armistice with the marshal, upon the terms that Sardinia should pay the expenses of the war, and open the fortress of Alessandria to an Austrian garrison.

RADOWITZ, JOSEPH VON, many years the favourite adviser of the present King of Prussia, and sometime his recognised minister, was born February 6, 1797, at Blandenberg, among the Harz mountains. His family belonged originally to the numerous small nobility of Hungary; but his grandfather settled in Germany in the middle of the eighteenth century. His father, who had studied law at Göttingen, enjoyed, in the duchy of Brunswick, the title of state-councillor, a compliment paid him by Duke Charles. Joseph received his early education, partly at home and partly in a school at Altenberg, whither his family removed a few years after his birth. His mother was a Protestant, and until his fourteenth year the boy was instructed in the principles of the same confession. In 1812, however, his father, a Catholic, took his education in hand, and removed him to a school where his own tenets were inculcated. Being designed from an early period for a military career in the service of Westphalia, then the kingdom of Jerome Bonaparte, he was sent by his father to France, to perfect himself in the language of the new ruler. In French and Westphalian schools he also studied the art of war. At the close of his academic course, in 1812, Radowitz was found highly proficient in mathematics, upon which Bonaparte had laid great stress as a military qualification, and was appointed an artillery officer of Westphalia. At the battle of Leipzic he commanded a Westphalian battery, was wounded, and taken prisoner. Previous exhibitions of bravery had procured for his name a place in the roll of the Legion of Honour. Upon the dissolution of the Westphalian kingdom and the return of the Elector of Hesse Cassel, Radowitz *entered the service* of the latter, and made with the Hessian *artillery the campaign* against France. His talents quickly

commanded the attention of his new superiors, and in 1815, at the age of eighteen, he was appointed first teacher of mathematics and the military sciences to the School for Cadets at Cassel. The return of peaceful times gave him opportunities for the study of philosophy and history, which he embraced with ardour. Having become profoundly acquainted with human opinions by close study, he was now to be driven, through the laxity and vices of others, into the highly-intellectual circle of Berlin society, so favourable to the developement of real talent. On the 27th February, 1821, the Elector William II. assumed the government of Hesse-Cassel. This prince, faithful to the hereditary profligacy of his house, now took up with one Emily Orleppe, a woman of notorious morals, brought her from the garrison of Berlin, and in the face of his amiable and virtuous wife, sister of Frederick-William III. of Prussia, raised her to the dignity of Countess of Reichenbach. It was not enough that he inflicted this cruel wrong on the princess his consort, but he treated her with personal violence. Whoever had a word to say on behalf of the injured lady fell into disgrace. The electress, hard pressed and without friends, one day asked counsel of Radowitz, who, as tutor to her son, had access to the court. The letter in which he gave her his serious advice fell into the elector's hands, and Radowitz was immediately dismissed from the Hessian service, in which at that time he was a captain. He now repaired to Berlin and entered the service of Prussia, and having the recommendation of the king's sister, speedily obtained advancement. He became, in the first instance, mathematical tutor to Prince Albrecht of Prussia, and was a captain on the general staff. He published two formal works on Geometry and one on Ricochet, during the ten first years of his new career. He was elected member of the highest military board, a professor at the military academy, and an examiner of artillery students. In 1828 he became major, and in 1830 chief of the artillery general staff. While thus advancing, with firm and rapid step, through the grades of his military hierarchy, he was forming a relation of a yet more important kind. A religious mystic and enthusiast, his disposition agreed exactly with that of the Crown-prince, now the King of Prussia; and this geniality of temper and *habit* proved of far greater power than the diversity of the

dogmas, which, as Protestant and Catholic, the one and the other held. The acquaintance here spoken of began in the year 1821, when Radowitz first met the crown-prince at Berlin, whither he had come from Hesse upon some military business. In 1824 Radowitz spent several months at Sans-Souci, as tutor to Prince Albrecht, when their social and religious affinities had full play; and from this time the influence of this singular man over the prince may be dated. Resembling Frederick-William in the sensitiveness of his nature, disposed, like him, to undervalue the present, in his reverence for a romantic past, and ever forming some ideal remote from the practical life of man, Radowitz had, at the same time, a resolute will, great penetration, and unbounded courage — all qualities in which his royal companion was lamentably deficient. His intercourse with society disclosed the stronger part of his nature. In business affairs, in council, at the Diet, it might be difficult to detect his secret policy or the system of principles from which he started or at which he aimed; but his opinions on the matter immediately in hand were always expressed clearly, and, indeed, in a somewhat defiant tone. In 1828 Radowitz married the Countess Maria Voss, daughter of the ambassador. He was now, despite of his origin, a recognised member of the court, and, without any of the cares or responsibilities of office, shared all its counsels. His "Recent Dialogues on Church and State," are taken from actual conversation with Gerlach, General von der Gröben, the late Count Brandenberg, and others, of the old school. Radowitz's ideas of reforming the Prussia of twenty years ago are to be found in his pamphlets and in articles contributed by him to the "Berlin Political Weekly News" of 1831. "Nous ne voulons pas la contre revolution, mais le contraire de la revolution," he once wrote; by which we are to understand that he regarded the revolution as a mass of abstractions existing only in the world of imagination. Radowitz wished for the contrary of this, something concrete, existing, to be improved by compromise and concession. The Provincial Diets of the kingdom then existing he regarded as the historical basis of that representative system which he wished to see arise in Prussia, not as something created, but organically grown. The notion of the counter-revolution he looked upon as a mere negative principle, necessarily barren, and,

therefore, unfit to be the inspiring idea of any statesman. But to return to the life of Radowitz. In the year 1829 he published two books, remarkable for the contrast of their subjects. The first of these was "Iconography of the Saints," containing historic notices of all the representations of the saints which have come down to posterity in pictures, coins, and other memorials; with remarks on the meaning of the emblems, attitudes, and other characteristics with which they have been invested. The other work was called "The Theatre of War in Turkey," being an application of strategetical principles to the topographical features of the country between the Danube and the Balkan. In 1836 Radowitz was named Military Plenipotentiary of Prussia at the Germanic Diet. This appointment, a kind of honourable banishment, he owed to the influence of his opponents at court and in the ministry, men who distrusted his opinions and feared his increasing ascendancy over the mind of the crown-prince. In 1840, the prospect of war with France upon the accession of M. Thiers led to the recall of Radowitz to Berlin, whence he was shortly after sent with General von der Gröben to Vienna, to stir up the Government of Austria to the defence of Germany. The war never came, but Radowitz brought about a series of reforms, which greatly contributed to the efficiency of the federal army, and also did more than any other man towards promoting the erection of the existing fortresses of Ulm and Rastall, and the extension and greater strengthening of Mayence and Luxembourg. In his conference with Metternich he warned him that a thorough reform of the Bund was necessary, and received from the Austrian a promise that, as soon as the impending danger should have passed over, he would concert means with Prussia to that end. Security returned, and Austria, fearful that her heterogeneous monarchy would go to pieces, was glad to find in the smaller governments the greatest disinclination to a change. Radowitz now endeavoured to carry out, by his influence in Prussia, several reforms, calculated on the cautious scale already indicated. He was the author of the proposition for abolishing the censorship in Prussia, which was debated in the cabinet, and declined out of regard for the decrees of the Bund. Several alterations of the old oppressive laws were, however, introduced by the decrees of Feb. 23, 1843. In 1847 the present king called

Radowitz from Frankfort, and commissioned him to draw up a memorial upon the reconstitution of the Confederation. This was done, and the memorial was handed to the king, Nov. 20 of the same year. The next day Radowitz went to Vienna, to make good his views with Prince Metternich. A second journey was undertaken to Vienna in the following March, when the revolution broke out. The memorandum proposed a compacter organisation of the federal army, a supreme judicial court for all Germany, one criminal law, one commercial and bankruptcy code, one customs union, one railway and post-office system, free trade in all provisions, abolition of river tolls and of the censure, and, finally, the publication of the proceedings of the Bund. The outbreak of the revolution made all these proposed reforms seem insignificant and far below the necessities of the case: probably by this time they are measured by a different standard. To execute them, Radowitz considered it of the first importance to obtain the hearty good-will of Austria: if Austria would take them up, Prussia would fall back into her old position; if not, she would with regret, but without fear, pursue them by means of special treaties of the nature of the Zollverein. Swiss affairs and the troubles in Italy delayed the meeting of the Congress which had been called by Austria to discuss these subjects, until the revolution of March placed the settlement of such questions beyond the power of cabinets. In April, 1848, Radowitz retired from the Prussian service in consequence of the outbreak and the changed state of affairs. In the elections to the National Assembly, which was to meet at Frankfort, he was returned for Arnsberg in Westphalia. He took his seat in the Assembly, hoping that the public spirit of Germany would put an end to the revolution by accepting the new power it had given to the representatives of the nation, as the basis of those tangible reforms which had, up to that time, been attempted in vain. He spoke and voted with the extreme right, desiring to see the thirty-nine sovereignties formed into one true state, of which, since the Austro-Germanic provinces were members of an extra-Germanic monarchy, Prussia must be the head. The statement of principles drawn up by the Radowitz party on the 30th Sept. *1848, bears the* signatures of Vincke Detwold, Count *Schwerin, and* thirty other deputies. In the Assembly

Radowitz was a frequent speaker; although no orator, his words always had great weight. Meissner the poet has described, as sitting in the St. Paul's Church, a dark, severe-looking man, never speaking to his neighbour, but brooding over the cause in hand until the division, when his powerful voice would be heard with "Sitzenbleiben," or "Aufstehen," according as he wished his party to vote for or against. On the 27th of May, 1849, having, doubtless, the miserable end of the Vienna and Berlin Parliaments in prospect, he demanded that a committee of five members should be appointed to confer with the authorities of the city of Frankfort, and learn what military force had been provided to protect the National Assembly from molestation; and, in the event of an unsatisfactory answer, to apply to the nearest government for a sufficient guard. Such a proceeding on the part of a king's companion argues some degree of boldness. The melancholy end of the Assembly, upon which Germany had built so many and great hopes, is too well known. To the last Radowitz was faithful to the principles which had always guided him: to the last he sought the unity of Germany by a voluntary arrangement between the governments and peoples. When his hopes in the Assembly had been frustrated, he returned to Berlin by desire of the king, and became the author of the scheme called the Union. In accordance with this a kind of federal body was formed of about eighteen states, the princes of which met in a congress, while the people were represented in a parliament which was convoked at Erfurt. A constitution was formed, and the princes were summoned to Berlin to adopt it. Radowitz could not perceive that the princes were bound to adopt the constitution voted at Erfurt. Delays and hesitation took place; and when, as was to be expected, Austria opposed with growing strength the establishment of a league against her, the sovereigns of the Union states found that their conduct had lost them the confidence of the people. As the crisis approached, it was felt that Radowitz was bound to come forward and assume the responsibility of his own measures. He accordingly entered the cabinet in 1850. The Prussian army was mobilised, and the Landwehr called out; troops occupied the Etappen-strasse through Hesse-Cassel, in which *Austria* had intervened. Shots were actually exchanged *between* Austria and Prussia, when the king gave way, and

sacrificed, with expressions doubtless of sincere regret, his minister and friend. Radowitz left Germany for England, and visited Windsor. He has since returned to Prussia, and still enjoys the confidence of the king, but leaves his cautious opponent, Manteuffel, in full possession of the direction of affairs. Radowitz has been assailed in this country as an impracticable and rash man. It is, however, clear from the foregoing narrative that he understood the wants of his country; and although the Revolution struck the ground from under his feet, and compelled him to work upon a new basis, it is by no means certain that, had his high-souled policy of placing Prussia at the head of the German movement for practical and constitutional reform been carried out, that country might now have defied the Emperor of Austria, to whose chariot it is now bound.

RADZIVIL, PRINCE, the Russian Envoy at Constantinople, and a favourite instrument of the czar, obtained a commission in the Imperial Guards about 1826, in the Grodno Hussars, then quartered at Warsaw. Two years afterwards, having been promoted to the rank of lieutenant, on returning home one night he met in the principal streets of Warsaw a young married woman, Madame N., who was walking leaning on her husband's arm. Prince Radzivil was accompanied by a friend, Ensign C. Struck by the beauty of Madame N., he, with the assistance of his companion, endeavoured to carry her off by main force, when the guard on duty, attracted by the scuffle, came up and took the two officers into custody. The Grand Duke Constantine, who, despite his violent and despotic character, is nevertheless animated by a strict sense of justice, had the two young men brought before a court-martial, which deprived them of their rank as officers, and ordered them to be drafted as privates in two cavalry regiments. The sentence was carried out as regards the ensign. An express order from St. Petersburg, from the emperor, commuted the sentence of Prince Radzivil into one month's imprisonment in the fortress of Madhy, in consideration of revelations made by him with regard to his brother-officers. At the breaking out of the Revolution of 1831, Prince Radzivil's regiment accompanied the grand-duke in the retreat which the generosity of the Polish provisional government allowed

him to make from the Polish territory. The grand-duke refused to march against Warsaw with the troops that were present in that retreat—a step which led to an open rupture between him and General Diebitsch. Radzivil solicited more active employment, and "to be allowed to fight against his rebellious compatriots." His request was granted. He was appointed aide-de-camp to General Foll, and given the command of a division charged to excite the rising of the peasantry of the districts of Podlachia and Lubly. At the close of the campaign the emperor appointed him his aide-de-camp. Shortly afterwards, and to the scandal of the whole court, he made a marriage for him, which was at the time the talk of all Russia; and his wife received in dower the fortune which the emperor had confiscated from his uncle, Prince Michel, commander-in-chief of the Polish army at Grochow, who had provided for his education and given him many marks of his liberality. Henceforth Radzivil was styled "the Black Officer"—a title bestowed upon officers ready to do any mission. The fortune of Radzivil is more than ten millions.

REACH, ANGUS BETHUNE, Journalist and Author, born January 23, 1821, is a native of Inverness. Some few years since he joined the "Morning Chronicle" newspaper as reporter. His talents immediately asserted themselves, and he soon distinguished himself in original composition. Besides a host of magazine papers, he is the author of two romances, "Clement Lorimer" and "Leonard Lindsay;" the former a tale of mystery, and the latter a well-coloured picture of buccaneer life. He has written, successfully, for the stage, and has contributed largely to descriptive and critical journalism. He recently went for the "Morning Chronicle" (upon the staff of which he is now engaged) to accomplish such portion of the survey of foreign "Labour and the Poor" as lies within the republic of France. His series of thirty letters upon this subject show at once descriptive power and faithful research. The letters in the same journal upon the manufacturing and mining districts of England are also due to Mr. Reach's pen.

REDGRAVE, RICHARD, Painter, born in Pimlico, April 30, 1804. Very many of our figure-painters excel as delineators

of landscape. The back-grounds of Mulready's pictures may be matched with the works of the finest Dutch painters. Whether of lake or mountain scenery, whether of distance or foreground, whether of desert or moor-land, what artist can be a more skilful painter than Sir Edwin Landseer? The air and sunshine, the murmuring trees, the rippling waters, in the midst of which Etty's buxom nymphs disport themselves, are painted with a brilliancy of tone which no landscape painter, since the time of Velasquez, has caught. And in Mr. Redgrave's works, which are chiefly character pieces of the pathetic and domestic cast, the observer will remark with how much delicacy and truth the landscape portions of the picture are rendered, and with what keen observation and relish this painter evidently pursues Nature. Mr. Redgrave became a student of the Royal Academy in 1826, an associate in 1840, and full member in 1851.

ROBERTS, DAVID, Painter, born at Stockbridge, near Edinburgh, October 4, 1796. He first became known in London as a scene-painter at Drury Lane Theatre, where he commenced his career, in conjunction with his friend and brother academician Stanfield, in 1822. He first exhibited in the Royal Academy in 1824. In reference to the sketches of Roberts, a popular writer says:—"What region of earth is there that does not show signs of the Englishman's labour? Our painters share the spirit of enterprise along with the rest of our people; and Mr. Roberts has visited at least three of the quarters of the globe, and brought away likenesses of their cities and people in his portfolio. He travelled for years in Spain; he set up his tent in the Syrian desert; he has sketched the spires of Antwerp, the peaks of Lebanon, the rocks of Calton Hill, the towers and castles that rise by the Rhine; the airy Cairo minarets, the solemn pyramids and vast Theban columns, and the huts under the date-trees, along the banks of the Nile. Can any calling be more pleasant than that of such an artist? The life is at once thoughtful and adventurous; gives infinite variety and excitement, and constant opportunity for reflection. As one looks at the multifarious works of this brave and hardy painter, whose hand is the perfect and accomplished slave of his intellect, and ready, like a genius in an Eastern tale, to execute the most wonderful

feats and beautiful works with the most extraordinary rapidity, any man who loves adventure himself must envy the lucky mortal whose lot it is to enjoy it in such a way. He reads the magnificent book of nature for himself, and at first hand. O happy painter! from the deck of your boat you sketch the sea and the shore: you moor under the city walls; and mosque and dome, Gothic cathedral, tower, and ancient fortress rise up with their long perspectives, and varied outlines and hues, and solemn shadows, fantastic and beautiful, built in an hour or two under the magical strokes of your delightful obedient little genius, the pencil! The ferry-boat puts off from the stairs, and makes its way across the river to the grey old town on the bank yonder, where the windows in the quaint-gabled houses and the vanes on the towers are still flaming in the sunset, and reflected in the river beneath. Tower and town, river and distant hill, boat and ferry, and the steersman with his paddle, and the peasants with the grape-baskets singing in the boat, are all sketched down on the painter's drawing-board before the sun has sunk, and before he returns to his snug supper at the inn, where the landlord's pretty daughter comes and peers over the magician's portfolio. Or the cangia moors, by the bank-side: the Arab crew are cooking their meal and chanting their chant: the camels come down to the water and receive their loads of cotton, and disappear with their shouting drivers under the date-trees, to the village with the crumbled wall and minaret, where the grave elders are seated smoking under the gate, and the women pass to and fro, straight and stately, robed in flowing blue robes, bearing pitchers on their graceful heads: the painter sees, and notes them all down, while the light lasts him, and before he smokes his own pipe under the stars on the deck; after a long day of pleasant labour, and before he closes his eyes, which have been so busy and so pleased all day. Or he is up before dawn upon his mule to see the sun rise over the heights of the sierra; or he is seated at morning, the sheikh with his long gun over his shoulder watching, and the Arabs lying round the tent, 'silent upon a peak in Lebanon.' Happy painter!"

ROEBUCK, JOHN ARTHUR, a Radical Politician, is a grandson of Dr. John Roebuck, an eminent physician of Bir-

mingham, and is maternally descended from the poet Tickell, the friend of Addison. He was born in Madras, 1801. When a mere boy, he went out to Canada, and left that province in 1824, for the purpose of studying law in this country. He was admitted a barrister of the Inner Temple in 1832, and chosen member for Bath at the first election after the Reform Bill. The character of a thorough reformer, which he won in this arena, led to his appointment, in 1835, as agent for the House of Assembly of Lower Canada during the dispute pending between the Executive Government and the House of Assembly. Soon after this appointment, Mr. Roebuck (having previously contributed to periodical publications) commenced the publication of a series of political "Pamphlets for the People;" and having in these attacked the whole body of political editors, sub-editors, reporters, and contributors of the press, and particularly those of the "Morning Chronicle," he became involved in what is called an affair of honour, and fought a very harmless duel with Mr. Black, the editor of that journal. Within the House a certain asperity of temper prevented his acceptance to the extent enjoyed by many men of inferior ability, but out of doors he was a popular favourite. In 1837, the plain speaking he had practised towards the Whigs, whom he regarded as false to the cause of progress, lost him his seat. He was again elected in 1841, but defeated in the general election of 1847. He now sits as member for Sheffield. Mr. Roebuck is a bold and unsparing orator, and has particularly distinguished himself in his replies to Disraeli.

ROGERS, SAMUEL, Poet and Banker, was born about 1760. His chief work is his poem on "Italy," on the illustration and printing of which he is said to have spent ten thousand pounds. It would be well for art and literature if all men who enjoy wealth would cultivate the tastes of Samuel Rogers. His house in St. James's Place is a perfect gem in its way—a perfect treasury of art. His pictures are amongst the very best of their class, and, though few in number, are said to have cost above six thousand pounds. His first work was the "Ode to Superstition, and other Poems," published in 1787, after he had been completing his *education by* a course of travel. Five years later appeared *his* "*Pleasures* of Memory," by which his fame as a poet

was established. In 1798 he published his "Epistle to a Friend, and other Poems;" in 1814, his "Vision of Columbus," and "Jacqueline;" in 1819, "Human Life;" in 1822, the first part of his "Italy." The criticism of Byron, whilst it describes the poetry of Rogers, is singularly opposed to the present popular beliefs in poetry: "We are all wrong except Rogers, Crabbe, and Campbell." So said the author of "Childe Harold," who, whilst he sang in the free and musical verse of Spenser, sighed for the trammelled, monotonous cleverness of Pope.

ROSSE, WILLIAM PARSONS, EARL OF, a Man of Science who does honour to the Peerage, and President of the Royal Society, was born in 1800; succeeded his father in 1841; married, 1836, the daughter of J. W. Field, Esq., of Heaton Hall, Yorkshire. Lord Rosse has devoted himself with much zeal and success to the study of optics and astronomy, and by great labour and at large cost has succeeded in setting up a vast telescope for the investigation of the starry world. Dr. Robinson has described the difficulties that beset the way of this scientific peer whilst constructing his astronomical implements, giving a rapid sketch of the steps by which Lord Rosse was led to the construction of his instruments, the difficulties he met with in producing large speculæ of that most intractable and yet beautiful material, speculum metal, which, while it is as hard as steel, is yet so brittle that a slight blow would shiver it to atoms, and so sensitive to changes of temperature, that the effusion of a little warm water over its surface, not too warm to be disagreeable to the touch, would crack it in every direction. He has given a sketch of the contrivances by which the leading difficulties were overcome, of the process of grinding and polishing, and of the adjustments and mechanical suspension of the instruments. A deviation of the speculum from the parabolic form at its outside circumference, which should amount to the 1-100,000th part of an inch, would have rendered it optically imperfect, and a deviation from the proper focal length of any part to the amount of the 1-1,000,000th part of an inch could be detected. Yet, by care and perseverance, and the expenditure of money, the great end was achieved that has shed deserved reputation upon Lord Rosse.

ROTHSCHILD, SIR ANTHONY, Capitalist, and member of a family known by the magnitude of its transactions with European and other powers, was born in 1810, the second son of the late Nathan Meyer de Rothschild. Like his brother Lionel, the present member for the City of London, he is a Baron of the Austrian empire, and received his English baronetcy in 1846, with remainder, in default of male issue, to his nephews, Nathan Meyer, Charles Alfred, and Leopold, sons of his brother before-mentioned.

RUSSELL, LORD JOHN, Statesman, born August 18, 1792, in Hertford Street, May Fair, is third son of the late Duke of Bedford by the second daughter of George Viscount Torrington. He was placed at first at a school at Sunbury, whence he was removed to Westminster. He subsequently proceeded to the University of Edinburgh, where his education was completed. In July, 1813, he entered Parliament as member for Tavistock, one of his father's boroughs. He at once took his place in the ranks of the great party whose watchwords were, "Civil and Religious Liberty, guaranteed by Parliamentary Reform," of which he has since become the head. His first address to Parliament was made in November 1813, against the treaty between Russia and Sweden. By this agreement, to which Great Britain was a consenting party, Norway was wrested from Denmark and made over to Sweden, as the price of Bernadotte's hostility to Bonaparte. In the next spring he spoke strongly against the blockade in which the administration of the Earl of Liverpool was endeavouring to force Norway to submit to Sweden. Having in these addresses laid down the principle of respecting the independence of nations and states, Lord John was consistent in opposing in the next year the war against Napoleon upon his escape from Elba. It was in the same year, 1815, that he published his first literary work, the "Life of Lord William Russell." In the opening of the session of 1817, Lord John took the earliest opportunity of denouncing Castlereagh's Habeas Corpus Suspension Bill. Upon this occasion he remarked, "We talk a great deal too much, I think, about the wisdom of our ancestors. I wish we would imitate the courage of our ancestors. They were not ready to lay their liberties at the foot of the throne upon every vain or imaginary alarm." Referring to the cry of innovation which was

raised upon the proposal of any reform, he said, "Do not let Reformers say, 'When we ask for redress, you refuse all innovation; when the Crown asks for protection, you sanction a new code: for us you are not willing to go an inch, for ministers you go a mile. When we ask for our rights, you will not touch the little finger of the constitution; but when those in authority demand more power, you plunge your knife into its heart.'" In the same year he retired from parliament on account of illness; he was, however, returned again for Tavistock in 1818. In December, 1819, he made his own first motion in favour of parliamentary reform. In 1820 and 1821 he took an active part on behalf of Queen Caroline, and in the latter year was successful in obtaining the disfranchisement of Grampound. In 1822 he made another powerful speech in introducing a motion for parliamentary reform, and obtained 164 supporters. In the April of the same year he proposed a reform measure, one of the propositions of which was, that owners of the rotten boroughs which he proposed to destroy should receive national compensation. His lordship thought it would be "a wise economy to expend a million of money in the purchase of boroughs, to procure a fair downright representation of the country." Of course this attempted compromise was not successful. The next three years were spent in a sedulous attention to parliamentary duties, and Lord John Russell's vote was always found recorded on the side of freedom and reform. On the 1st of March, 1826, he so far succeeded with the House as to procure the second reading and committal of a bill for transferring the privilege of returning members from small corrupt boroughs to others more populous and wealthy. In 1827 the quasi-liberal ministry of Canning came into power, and Lord John's exertions in the cause of reform were relaxed; partly, as he said, on account of the national apathy on the subject, and partly from confidence in the intentions of the cabinet to effect something in the same direction. In 1828 he proposed a measure for the repeal of the Test Acts, which was carried in the Commons, but only passed the Lords after most illiberal mutilations. In February 1830 he moved for leave to bring in a bill to enable the towns of Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds to return members to parliament; but his motion was lost by a majority of 48,—ayes, 140; noes, 188. In May of

the same year he spoke in favour of a motion for removing Jewish disabilities, and also supported Mr. Labouchere's resolution on Canada, for placing the seats in the legislative councils of the colony more in the power of the people, and for removing the judges from the executive council. On the 28th of May he decidedly opposed O'Connell's plan of parliamentary reform, which included universal suffrage, the ballot, and triennial parliaments. A scheme of his own was lost by a majority of 96 in a house of 330. On the formation of Lord Grey's administration in 1830, Lord John was made Paymaster of the Forces, and became the organ of the new Government in the House of Commons. On the 1st of March, 1831, he submitted to the House the outline of his scheme of parliamentary reform, the first which had ever been voluntarily proposed by a government. The second reading of the bill was carried on the 22d of March, but only by a majority of one: the number of ayes being 302; noes, 301. In the committee, April 19, General Gascoyne carried a motion declaring that the number of members of the House should not be increased. The Government, refusing to accept the decision, dissolved parliament, and the new House met next June. On the 24th of the same month, Lord John again submitted his measure, and traced the growth of parliamentary power in England. The second reading of the bill was this time carried by a majority of 136. The obstructives divided the House seven times against the bill, which, however, was finally read in the Commons on the 20th of September, by a majority of 109. In October the bill was lost in the Lords. The ministers now undertook to revise and improve the bill, and opened the new session in December. On the 12th of that month the Reform Bill was again brought forward, and passed the Commons without a division on the 23d of March, 1832. On the 27th of March ministers were defeated in the House on Lord Lyndhurst's motion for postponing the disfranchising clauses. On the 25th ministers resigned; but the public feeling was so decided in their favour, that by the advice of the Duke of Wellington they were recalled. The Lords gave way, and passed the measure. Lord John had now to feel the inconvenience of ministerial position, being called upon often to defend existing arrangements, of which as a reformer he could not ap-

prove, but which the Government was not prepared to abolish. Thus in February he defended naval sinecures against Mr. Hume's motion, and a year afterwards against an inquiry into the civil list. In 1834 he introduced a measure enabling Dissenters to be married at their own places of worship. In the autumn of 1834 he retired with his colleagues, and Sir Robert Peel was sent for from Rome to form an administration. The Peel Parliament met in February 1835, and on the 30th of March Lord John brought forward the question upon which the Whig Government had been dismissed, by moving, "that the House do resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House to consider the Temporalities of the Church of Ireland." He argued that the surplus revenues of that wealthy establishment ought to be appropriated to purposes of general education. His motion was carried, after a four-nights' debate, by a majority of 33: 322 to 289. Following up his victory, he placed Sir Robert, on the 7th of April, in a minority of 27; and the next day the Conservative Cabinet resigned. By the 12th of May the second Whig Cabinet was formed under Lord Melbourne, and Lord John became Secretary of State for the Home Department. On returning to the constituency of Devon, which he had represented since 1831, for re-election, he was unseated. He, however, soon obtained a seat as member for Stroud. On the 5th of June he brought forward the much-needed measure of Municipal Reform—a great act of liberal legislation, only second in importance to the Reform Bill. His subsequent career is still fresh in the public mind. Having effected the overthrow of colonial slavery, his Government fell into financial difficulties. He attempted in 1841 to meet these by a reduction of the sugar-duties, which he hoped would then yield, as coffee had done, larger returns than under high rates. He also proposed a fixed duty of 8*s.* on corn, instead of the protective sliding-scale. Defeated on these points, he dissolved Parliament. With the new Parliament he was unsuccessful, and Peel took office in 1841. From that time to 1845 he conducted a moderate opposition to Peel; but in the recess, at the close of that year, he wrote from Edinburgh and published a letter declaring his conversion to total repeal of the corn-laws. In July 1846, Peel *having* finished his great act of free-trade policy, resigned,

and Lord John became first Lord of the Treasury, a post which he has since held. From 1841 he has not ceased to represent the City of London.

RUSSIA, NICHOLAS I., PAWLOWITSCH, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, is the third son of the Emperor Paul and his second wife Mary (Sophia-Dorothy) of Wurtemberg. He was born July 6, 1796 (June 25, old style). Nicholas was educated, under the direction of his mother, by General Lansdorf, with the assistance of other tutors for special departments of instruction, among whom were the famous philologist Adelung and Councillor Stork, who imparted to his pupil the elements of political economy. The grand-duke devoted himself with peculiar ardour to the military sciences, in which he evinced considerable aptitude, especially in the art of fortification. He also manifested an early preference for music, and proceeded so far as to compose a number of military marches, which are said not to want merit. After the establishment of a general peace, and when it was hoped that all the European states, restored to a firm basis, were entering upon a normal path, he visited several foreign countries, and, travelling as far as England, embarked on these shores in 1816. On his return to Russia he hastened to acquaint himself with the condition of his expected inheritance, visiting all the provinces, and residing some considerable time in their chief cities. On the 13th of July, 1817, he espoused Charlotte, eldest daughter of Frederick-William III. of Prussia; he is, therefore, the brother-in-law of the present king of that country. This lady (born July 13, 1798) embraced at once the Greek religion, and took the name of Alexandra-Feodorowna. The news of the death of Alexander, which took place at Saganrog in South Russia, December 1, 1825, reached St. Petersburg, and was the signal for the outbreak of a conspiracy long projected and widely ramified, whose leaders were to be found in the army. The insurrection took place under the very eyes of the imperial family, in the Great Square, before the winter palace; but through the cowardice, and perhaps treachery, of one of the conspirators, Nicholas was enabled to defeat it, and having delivered five of the leaders to the executioner, banished the remainder to the mines of Siberia. Upon learning his father's decease, Nicholas took the oaths of

fidelity to his brother Constantine, who was at Warsaw, and imposed the same upon all the troops. Although the senators, conforming to the directions of Alexander, had opened the sealed packet which had been intrusted to them, with the injunction to preserve it in tact until the emperor's death, and had found in it the abdication of Constantine and the peremptory order of Alexander to proclaim Nicholas emperor, the grand-duke hesitated to avail himself of this authorization to assume power, alleging that such a resolution on the part of his brother could not be valid if made during the life of their father. But Constantine, who had received intelligence of Alexander's death several days before his brother, sent a number of letters to his family, in which he renewed his renunciation of the sovereign dignity, and declared that he acknowledged only Nicholas as Emperor of all the Russias. In a manifesto published December 24, 1825, Nicholas published an authentic relation of the circumstances which had called him to the throne, and the next day received the oath of fidelity. From that day to this all his thoughts have been directed to intensify and extend the power which he has inherited. In striving to attain this end no difficulty has been too great to be surmounted, no cruelty too atrocious to be employed. He is the centre and soul of his government, and probably does all that one man's industry can do to advance the social welfare of the nation, so far as may be compatible with his general policy; but he will have no coadjutor in this work. Better maintain abuse than see improvements spring otherwise than from his own will. In Persia, Greece, Germany, and, above all, Turkey, his diplomacy has been ever active and pre-eminently sagacious and successful. The European events of the last three years have immensely increased his influence on the Continent, and have constituted him the pillar and ground of autocratic government from the Vistula to the Rhine.

S.

SALDANHA, OLIVIERA, E DAUN, JOÃO CARLOS, *DUKE OF*, first Minister of Portugal, and a Marshal in the

army, was born in 1780, at Arinhaga. He is a grandson, by his mother's side, of the Marquis du Pombal, by his second marriage with the Countess Daun. He received his education in the School for Nobles at Lisbon, and at the University of Coimbra. He entered upon office as a member of the Council of Administration for the Colonies, and remained in Portugal after the emigration of the court to Brazil. In 1810 he came to England, and afterwards went to Brazil, where he commanded an army with some success, and was subsequently employed in diplomacy. In 1825 the King of Portugal named him Minister of Foreign Affairs. In 1826, when Isabella, after the king's death, had succeeded to the royal dignity, Saldanha was Governor of Oporto; but upon the introduction of Pedro's constitution (*see* PORTUGAL, MARIA, QUEEN OF), he was made Minister of War. He suppressed the disturbances which at that time broke out in the north of Portugal, as well as those which shortly afterwards took place in Algarvia. He induced the Government to decline the services of Lord Beresford, who had arrived at Oporto with the wish to undertake the command of the Portuguese army. He resigned office on the 21th of June, 1837, having failed in an attempt to remove two suspected members of the regency; and the strenuous attempts of the Liberal party to restore him to power remained without effect. He now came to England, but, when Miguel had assumed the government, returned, landed at Oporto, and with Palmella placed himself at the head of the constitutional army. The troops proved so cowardly, that he laid down his command and returned to England. The adherents of the young queen assembled about two thousand men in England, for the purpose of landing in the Portuguese dominions and strengthening the garrison of Terceira, the only spot where the rights of Donna Maria were recognised. The Government of England, however, took precautions to prevent this. Saldanha then went to France, where, in 1832, Pedro collected other forces and landed in Portugal. Saldanha was made commandant of Oporto, and chief of the general staff. In conjunction with Villaflor he broke the Miguelist lines before Lisbon, and in 1834 was appointed in the room of his companion in arms to the chief command. In the Cortes opened by Pedro, Aug. 5th, 1837, Saldanha belonged to the Opposition, but on the 27th of May, 1835, was made War Minister and President of the

Council. He was unable, however, to obtain a majority in the Chamber; and as the Government was daily sinking in credit, he resigned in November 1835. In the session of 1836 Saldanha sat on the Opposition side of the Cortes, and was supposed to belong to the Liberal party; but when the September revolution broke out he embraced the Conservative cause, and joined a number of peers in protesting against the abolition of their exceptional privileges. He also joined the Duke of Terceira, to place himself at the head of a movement for restoring the constitution of Dom Pedro, but failed. In 1846, being then in Paris, he was recalled to Portugal by the Duke of Palmella, who, upon the downfall of the Cabrals, had taken office to assume the portfolio of foreign affairs, and shortly arrived; but, instead of embracing the offer, came to an understanding with the Duke of Terceira with a view to overthrowing the new premier. In consequence of these intrigues, a counter-movement in the reactionary interest took place on the night of Oct. 6, 1848, and was for a time successful. Saldanha presented himself to the queen, the bearer of a list of new ministers, at the head of which was his own name. This step called forth a popular insurrection in Oporto and the northern provinces. The sequel of these events will be found in our notice of the sovereign of Portugal.

SANTA ANNA, ANTONIO LOPEZ DE, formerly President of the Republic of Mexico, was born in the last decade of the eighteenth century, and first came into public life in the year 1821. After he had expelled the royalists from Vera Cruz, he was appointed to the command of that city, from which he was deposed in Nov. 1822. He immediately raised the banner of the Republic in Vera Cruz, and commenced hostilities against Iturbide, and was successful in overthrowing the latter. When he found that his ambitious purposes were not sufficiently served in the changes which followed, he placed himself at the head of the Federalist party, but was defeated, and retired to his estate near Jalapa until 1828, when he again appeared on the scene. He this time came forward to promote the presidency of Guerrero, who in 1829 appointed Santa Anna commander of his army. When, in 1830, Bastamenta attained to the chief dignity, Santa Anna espoused the cause of Pedrazza, against whom

he had formerly supported Guerrero. He defeated the army sent against him, and Pedrazza was president until 1833. At the new election in March, Santa Anna was chosen president; but, although the favourite of the army, he could not gain the confidence of the people. Arista and D'Arran, who in 1833 took up arms against him, were, however, defeated. In 1835, the rumour that he was intriguing for the imperial dignity produced an insurrection of four provinces. Having defeated Lacatecos, leader of the Reform party, who had published against him a proclamation, he proclaimed himself dictator. The discontented now flocked to Texas, and proclaimed a government. Santa Anna went against them; but the war, which gained him no glory, ended in his being taken prisoner. Released from captivity, he took part, in Dec. 1838, in the defence of Vera Cruz against the French, in which service he lost a leg. After many vicissitudes, he was again made president in 1841, and governed absolutely until 1845, when a new revolution hurled him from power. The two succeeding presidents were, however, unable to carry on the government, and in the next Santa Anna regained his lost power. On the 22d of February, 1846, he encountered the American general, Taylor, then invading Mexico, at Buena Vesta. Santa Anna had 17,000 men, Taylor 4000 or 5000. The fight lasted two whole days, and both parties claimed the victory. After this, the forces of the United States continuing to gain ground, Santa Anna withdrew further into the country, leaving Mexico in the hands of the enemy. During his absence the Mexican senate deposed him from his command. As first magistrate of the State, he refused obedience, and withdrew to Tehuacan. In the following campaign he was recalled to the supreme command, and in this capacity fought the decisive battle of Cerrogordo, when his army was put to the route. At Mexico a revolution had placed D'Arran in the presidential chair, but the advance of the United States' army decided the people to concentrate all power in the hands of Santa Anna, who was once more proclaimed president of the republic. The Mexicans were, however, successful; and on the 2d of February, 1848, the treaty was signed, by which the United States gained, among other advantages, the auriferous territory of California.

SARDINIA, VICTOR-EMMANUEL-ALBERT-EUGENE-FERDINAND-THOMAS, KING OF (formerly Prince-Royal and Duke of Savoy), was born March 14, 1820. In 1842 he married the second daughter of the Archduke Reynier, the former Viceroy of Milan, who had himself married the sister of Charles-Albert. Thus he is cousin-german to the ex-Emperor Ferdinand, and first and second cousin to the present Emperor Francis-Joseph. When the late lamented Charles-Albert had determined to recommence the war of liberation, and advanced to the Ticino, the young prince nobly resolved to share the fortune of the campaign. The disastrous battle of Novara (*see* RADETSKY) was fought March 24, 1849. In the evening after the battle, the king, Charles-Albert, sad but calm, returned to the Bellini Palace. At nine o'clock he sent for the Dukes of Savoy and Genoa, the Commander-in-chief, the Minister Cadorna, and the lieutenant-generals and commandants of division at Novara. The rumour of his abdication had already spread in the palace, and when he entered the room in which the council had assembled, the emotion of the persons present showed that they had penetrated his secret. The king advanced with dignity, and said,—"Gentlemen, fortune has betrayed your courage and my hopes; our army is dissolved: it would be impossible to prolong the struggle. My task is accomplished, and I think I shall render an important service to my country by giving a last proof of devotedness in abdicating in favour of my son, Victor-Emmanuel, duke of Savoy. He will obtain from Austria conditions of peace which she would refuse if treating with me." The persons present burst into tears, but no emotion was visible in the face of Charles-Albert, and all the efforts of the Duke of Savoy to shake his resolve were vain. The king embraced him and the Duke of Genoa, and all who were present. He thanked them for the services they had rendered him, and said, "Gentlemen, I am no longer your king; be faithful and devoted to my son, as you have been to me." He then withdrew to write to the queen, and charged the Duke of Savoy to deliver the letter of adieu with his own hand. On March 28, Victor-Emmanuel received the deputation from the Chamber of Deputies of Turin, charged to inform the king that the representatives of the nation continued to promise *him all* the means they could dispose of to carry on the great

work begun by his father. King Victor-Emmanuel thanked the deputation for their grateful memory of his father; he then gave several details on the late disastrous campaign, and mentioned several corps of the army which had fought bravely. He said his father, Charles-Albert, had determined to abdicate, in consequence of the heavy conditions imposed by the enemy, and which broke his heart. The king then added,—"I have already obtained a considerable mitigation of the conditions, and I shall do my best that these conditions may be reduced." The king then spoke still more of the war; he willingly accepted the generous offer of the nation to continue the war of independence. In this question he said he would not quit the footsteps of his honoured father; the nation might be assured that he had nothing more at heart than the honour of the country. It was with difficulty that Victor-Emmanuel could compose the agitations of the kingdom. At Genoa the republican party rose in revolt. The Chambers, too, refused to ratify the best treaty which the king could make with Radetzky, and was dissolved. Hitherto, however, it must be acknowledged that the new king has faithfully kept his promises of liberal government and reform, in spite of the strong pressure applied in opposition to this course by Austria, his dangerous neighbour. Under the administration of the D'Azeglis cabinet the country enjoys, like Belgium, the blessings of constitutional government. From the recent changes in France new difficulties and dangers must be expected to arise to Piedmont; but every friend to freedom and good government will wish that no departure may be made from the policy which has marked the early reign of the king.

SCOTT, GENERAL WINFIELD, an eminent commander of the United States' army. Winfield Scott is descended from a Scotch ancestry. His grandfather being involved in the Rebellion of 1745, and leaving a brother on the field of Culloden, migrated to Virginia, carrying with him little but a liberal education. A respectable marriage, and eminence at the bar, soon, however, restored his fortunes. His son, William, married Ann Mason, a gifted woman, and their youngest child is the subject of this sketch. After various and successful studies, Scott was admitted to the bar in 1806, and began the practice of the law. The attack on the

Chesapeake brought him into the army. In May, 1808, he received his commission as a captain of artillery, and in 1809 joined the camp at New Orleans. A free expression of opinion on the conduct of his late general cost him his suspension from the army for a year, which he spent in the study of international law and the art of war. The second war with England was declared June 1812, and in the following month he received a lieutenant-colonel's commission, and was ordered to Niagara, where the main force of the coming tempest was expected to burst. The disastrous surrender of General Hull had covered the army and the nation with gloom. The presence of Scott on the frontier restored spirits to the troops. The battle of Queenstown Heights, although a defeat, gave to America the prestige of a victory; but Scott became a prisoner on parole. In 1813 an exchange of prisoners restored him to his country. He hastened to the frontier, and January 27 captured Fort George. The victory of Chippewa excited the admiration of his countrymen, when, twenty days after, he gained the decisive battle of Niagara. The victorious general was, however, borne severely wounded from the field; and after a confinement of several weeks, as soon as he could bear the motion of a litter, he was carried by the gentlemen of the country to the Atlantic coast, amid general acclamations. The office of Secretary-at-war was offered to him on the settlement of peace, but he declined that honour. He was then sent to Europe for the restoration of his health, and to perfect himself in the science of war. In Paris he found letters of introduction from Kosciusko to Carnot, and the principal marshals of the French empire. The battle of Waterloo had been fought, and Napoleon was on his way to St. Helena, but Scott saw the scarred heroes of Europe, visited the great battle plains, surveyed fortifications, studied the military system, and returned to teach it to the American army. He has since sent out books from his closet, and trained generals by his side. In 1832 he took the direction of the Black Hawk war, and soon brought it to a close. His next scene of action opens in the state of South Carolina, where he was sent to guard, and, if necessary, vindicate the integrity of *the Union*, then menaced by threats of southern secessions. *Having* discharged this duty by an exhibition of firmness, *and* restored tranquillity to the republic, he was sent in

1835 to suppress an insurrection of the Seminoles; and in 1836 he subdued the Creeks. To him was confided the delicate task of preserving the public faith and honour during the rebellion in Canada, and he was mainly instrumental in averting war. He was despatched to the southern border of the republic to remove the Cherokees beyond the Mississippi. The torch of savage war was lighted; he extinguished it by persuasive negotiations, and the Indians voluntarily abandoned the lands and the graves of their fathers. In 1841 he became commander of the army, and remained at his post in Washington till his instructions carried him beyond the limits of the republic to end the war in Mexico. He was compelled to organise the army from its merest rudiments. In March, 1847, he took the castle and city of Vera Cruz, in the following month fought the battle of Cerro Gordo, and in September entered the capital of Mexico. Winfield Scott remains the Bugeaud, or rather the Changarnier, of America, without rival, the first of her generals.

SCRIBE, EUGÈNE, French Lyric Poet and Dramatic Writer, was born Dec. 24, 1791, at Paris, in the Rue St. Denis, where his father was a silk mercer. His father, who saw in the boy the promise of high talent, placed him in the college of St. Barbe. At the age of twenty-one he wrote his first stage-composition, a vaudeville for the Gymnase. He shortly after began to write for the Théâtre Français, and has since produced two comedies in five acts, besides twenty shorter; also one hundred and fifty vaudevilles. In lyric poetry he has written the words to forty grand operas and one hundred and three comic operas; he has also published several novels. M. Scribe has an elegant villa at Meudon, near Paris, and a domain in the country. He is a member of the Academy, a commander of the Legion of Honour, and has received decorations from almost every sovereign in Europe. Opera-goers in England remember with pleasure his masterly libretto to Halevy's "Tempesta," produced at her Majesty's Theatre in June 1850.

SHAFTESBURY, ANTHONY ASHLEY COOPER, EARL OF, Philanthropist, and lay-leader of the Low-Church party, was born April 28, 1801, and educated at

Oxford, where he obtained a first class in classics in 1832. In 1826 he took his seat in the House of Commons, by the courtesy title of Lord Ashley, as member for Woodstock, and supported the governments of Liverpool and Canning, without, however, taking office. In the succeeding administration of the Duke of Wellington he became a Commissioner of the Board of Control. In 1830 he was returned for the borough of Dorchester, and in 1831 for the county of Dorset, after a fifteen-days' contest with Mr. Ponsonby. He was a Lord of the Admiralty in Peel's brief administration of 1834–35; and on the death of the late Mr. Sadler took charge of the Ten-hours' Bill in the House of Commons. When Sir Robert Peel again took office in 1841, he invited Lord Ashley to join the administration: the latter refused upon finding that Peel's views would not permit him to support the Ten-hours' Bill. In 1846 he resolved to support the measure for repealing the Corn-laws; but his constituents having manifested great dissatisfaction upon learning his intention he resigned his seat, and was for a short time out of parliament. In 1847, however, he contested the election for Bath with J. A. Roebuck, the former member, and being strongly supported by the religious societies was returned. On the 2d of June, 1851, he succeeded his father in the peerage. In public life his lordship has always acted with great independence. The chief object for which he has laboured, in and out of parliament, has been the improvement of the social condition of the labouring classes. Differences of opinion divide the public upon concrete measures, such as the Ten-hours' Bill; but the sturdiest opponents of that kind of legislation acknowledge that no man has performed more arduous and self-denying labour in informing himself of the actual condition of the mass of the people in England, and endeavouring to raise their lot, than the noble earl. Lord Shaftesbury's influence in the Evangelical party within the Church of England is of the highest degree. Romanising tendencies have not a greater enemy. He is President of the Pastoral Aid Society, and the Society for the Conversion of the Jews; and a prominent member of all those church societies which are founded on a broad basis. Being a man of liberal feelings he has no difficulty in acting with Christians of other *denominations* than his own, and thus is President of the *Bible* Society and the Protestant Alliance.

SMITH, THOMAS SOUTHWOOD, Author and Physician, born about 1790. He first attracted public attention to himself by a work entitled "The Divine Government," written in 1814. Of this Wordsworth, in a letter, says: "The view Dr. Smith takes is so consonant with the ideas we entertain of Divine goodness, that, were it not for some scriptural difficulties, I should give this book my unqualified approbation." The argument is, that it seems probable, judging by analogy, that pain is a correcting process, whether physical, mental, or spiritual, and that the whole human race will be finally saved. Dr. Southwood Smith spent several years in the practice of his profession in the West of England, where he married. On the death of his wife he came to London with his two young daughters, and attached himself to one of the metropolitan hospitals. He was soon after appointed physician to the London Fever Hospital, which distinction he retains. He employed his leisure in the composition of a "Treatise on Fever," which at once took its position as a standard medical work. He assisted in the formation of the "Westminster Review," and wrote the article on Bentham's System of Education in the first number. To this review he became a regular contributor; and it was his papers on the anatomical schools which brought the abuses of the old system of surgery so prominently before the public. He reprinted the main part of these articles, under the title of "The Use of the Dead to the Living;" and his arguments, it is well known, prepared the way for the passing of the present law, which has extinguished the horrible traffic of the "resurrection-men." His next scientific labours were some articles on physiology and medicine for the "Cyclopædia;" and soon after he furnished his celebrated treatise on "Animal Physiology" to the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. The success of this work suggested the idea of treating the subject in a still more comprehensive manner; and hence, in 1834, his "Philosophy of Health." Dr. S. Smith had long been the disciple and physician of Jeremy Bentham, and attended him in his last illness. A characteristic anecdote is related of the expiring philanthropist:—During his last illness he asked his medical attendant to tell him candidly if there was any prospect of his recovery. On being informed that nature was too exhausted to allow of such a hope, he said, with his

usual serenity, "Very well, be it so; then *minimise* pain!" In order to show the world his superiority to the common prejudices of mankind, he left his body, by will, to Dr. S. Smith for anatomical purposes, and requested that after dissection his skeleton should be preserved. The Doctor fulfilled his desire, and delivered a lecture over the dead body of his friend in the Webb-street School of Anatomy, on June 9th, 1832. "There, on the dissecting-table," says a writer we have before quoted, "lay the frame of that acute and benevolent man; before it stood the lecturer, pale as the corpse, yet self-possessed and reverent; around were seated most of the disciples and friends of the deceased. During the address there was a violent thunderstorm, which threw an indescribable awe over the whole scene. Every now and then the countenances of the dead and the living were lit up with the flashes of lightning; still the speaker proceeded, interrupted now and then by the thunder-crash, until at length it died away, and seemed to give up quiet possession to the lecturer's voice. In this address was given a brief, but eloquent, abstract of the life and writings of Jeremy Bentham." In 1837 Dr. S. Smith was appointed by the Government to inquire into the state of the poor, with a view to see how far diseases and misery were produced by unhealthy dwellings and habits. His inquiries led to the passing of the Act for procuring improved drainage, and ultimately to the establishment of the Public Board of Health, of which Dr. S. Smith is now a leading member.

SPOHR, LOUIS, Musical Composer, was born at Gandersheim, in the duchy of Brunswick, about 1783, the son of a physician. He was instructed by the German violinist, Maurer, in the art of playing that master's favourite instrument, and early developed great capabilities for music. He was taken notice of by the duke, who appointed him a maintenance out of the civil list, and afterwards allowed him a stipend for the purpose of studying under the violinist Eck, whom he accompanied on a journey to Russia. In 1804 he made a professional excursion in Germany, and was appointed conductor of concerts to the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Here he composed a number of concert pieces for the violin and clarionette, quartetts, quintetts, duos for

violins, variations, sonatos, potpourris with harp accompaniment, and some overtures. He also composed a collection of songs, with pianoforte accompaniment; the oratorio called "Das jüngste Gericht;" and the opera "Der Zweikampf der Geliebten." In 1813 he proceeded to the Vienna theatre, with the nominal appointment of chapel-master, and attracted great notice during the session of the European Congress. In 1814 he composed, at Vienna, his genial "Faust," his first great symphony, and the cantata "Germany freed." In 1817, having visited Italy, he accepted the post of music-director of the Frankfort theatre, which he gave up in 1817 to come to London, where he wrote his two great symphonies. After his return to Germany he resided for some time in Dresden, until called to be chapel-master at Cassel. During his abode in the former city he had composed, not only many of his best instrumental pieces, but had applied himself with zeal to the production of dramatic music. His opera "Zemire and Azor" is full of deep and moving expression, and his "Jessonda" developed. His operas "Peter von Abano," "Abruna," and "Der Alchemist," are less esteemed. His oratorios, "Die letzten Dinge" and "Die letzten Stunden des Erlosers," prove him a master in church music. His fourth symphony is one of his most popular works. His compositions are all more or less characterised by a feeling of tender melancholy, such as in poetry is called elegiac.

STANFIELD, CLARKSON, Painter, born about 1790. Stanfield and Roberts, but especially the former, who has executed more, and more various, works in the scenic department than his brilliant coadjutor, have had the means of doing more towards advancing the taste of the English public for landscape art than any other living painters. Mr. Stanfield for many years taught the public from the stage—taught the pit and the gallery to admire landscape art, and the boxes to become connoisseurs; and decorated the theatre with works so beautiful, that one regrets the frail material of which they were constructed, and the necessity for "new and gorgeous effects," and "magnificent novelties," which caused the artist's works to be carried away. Mr. Stanfield has created, and afterwards painted out with his own brush, more scenic masterpieces than any man. Clown and Pan-

taloon in his time tumbled over and belaboured one another, and bawled out their jokes, before the most beautiful and dazzling pictures which ever were presented to the eyes of the theatre-goer. How a man could do so much and so well as Mr. Stanfield did, during the time when he was the chief of the Drury Lane scene-room, was a wonder to everybody; and it was not the public only which he delighted, and awakened and educated into admiration, but the members of his own profession were as enthusiastic as the rest of the world to recognise and applaud his magnificent imagination and skill. All through this painter's life his industry and his genius have been alike remarkable, and it is curious to note, in his performances of the present time, how the carefulness of the artist seems to increase with his skill: as if this conscientious man were bent each day upon improving, on elaborating, and polishing his works, on approaching more nearly to nature.

SUE, EUGÈNE, a popular French Novelist, of more talent than morality, was born in Paris. He is popularly known in this country as the author of "The Mysteries of Paris," and "The Wandering Jew." Sue is a Socialist, and in that character obtained, in 1849, a seat in the French National Assembly. His election by universal suffrage was, it is understood, the clinching argument used by the promoters of the law for limiting the suffrage in France. When Sue took his seat, the party of order were greatly irritated. The "Ordre," a Legitimist journal, under the head of "The Sensualist Candidate of the Socialists," said:—"What is it that has procured Citizen Eugène Sue the applause of the Conclave? It is this sentence of the romance writer, quoted by the celebrated delegate Citizen Miot, as containing the solution of all social questions, 'No one has a right to superfluity while any one is in want of necessaries.' But with Citizen Eugène Sue where does superfluity commence or necessity end? Is, for instance, according to his views, a measure of simple necessity the style which he keeps up at his Château des Bordes, if we may credit a little book published by M. Auguste Johanet, under the title of 'Vérités Sociales Inconnues ou Méconnues,' and in which is found the following picture of the Socialist necessity of Citizen Eugène Sue? The author introduces us into the manor and park of Des

Bordes:—'It is impossible to convey an idea of this luxury, of the sumptuousness of these caprices, of those whims of all kinds: here a dining-room where the sideboards display plate, porcelain, and crystal, with pictures and flowers to add to the pleasures of the table all the pleasures of the eyes; then an inner gallery, where pictures, statuettes, drawings, and engravings, reproduce subjects the most calculated to excite the imagination. Here is a library full of antiquities, where bookcases contain works bound with unheard-of luxury, where objects of art are multiplied with an absence of calculated affectation, which appears as if wishing to say that they came there naturally. A daylight shaded by the painted glass windows and curtains of the richest stuff gives to this place an air of mystery, invites to silence and to study, and produces those eccentric inspirations which M. Sue gives to the public. A desk richly carved receives sundry manuscripts of the romance writer,—the numerous homages sent to Monsieur, as the valet expresses himself, from all the corners of the globe, and which the faithful servant enumerates with the most scrupulous care. Everywhere may be seen gold, silver, silk, velvet, and soft carpets. Everywhere taste and art tax their ingenuity in a thousand ways to produce effect, ornament, and domestic enjoyments. A vast drawing-room, furnished and decorated with all imaginable care, exactly reproduces that of one of the heroines of romance of M. Eugène Sue; and there have been carved on the woodwork of a Gothic mantelpiece medallions representing the Madeleine falling at the feet of our Saviour, who tells her that her sins will be forgiven her, because her love has been strong. An immense looking-glass connects this *salon* with a green-house, filled with exotic shrubs and trees, and it is lighted at night with magnificent lustres. The walls are highly decorated, and gold and silver fish are seen swimming in marble basins. In addition to the lustres there are branches for *bougies*, mixed with the foliage of the trees and plants, to increase the effect when the place is lighted up. A small gallery, lined with odoriferous plants, leads to a circular walk, which surrounds a garden cultivated in the most expensive manner; and there is a fine piece of water with numerous swans on it. The walk is a *chef-d'œuvre* of comfort, for it is alike protected from the wind and the rain, being covered with a dome. It is enclosed with balustrades

covered with creeping plants of the choicest nature. It is a sort of terrestrial paradise in the bosom of the Sologne, and beyond it is a park admirably laid out with kiosques, rustic cottages, elegant bridges, and a preserve for pheasants, which supply myriads of birds for the shooting excursions of the illustrious Communist, whose keepers exercise a severe look-out to prevent any person from touching the game. The outbuildings show the same elegance. There is a splendid court-yard leading to the stables for carriage-horses, one of which has his name, 'Paradox,' marked over his stall. The wood-work is richly painted and varnished, with an infinity of brass ornaments. Near this place is a box exclusively devoted to the favourite mare of Citizen Eugène Sue, the famous 'Good Lady;' it is furnished with even more elegance. The harness is kept in the finest order, and there is a communication from the harness-room to the green-houses. The dog-kennels are in the same luxurious style as the stables. Many workmen would think themselves happy to have such habitations. In a walk round the reserved grounds we convinced ourselves that the walks were carefully kept, and here and there are banks of moss for the author to repose upon in his meditations; but the tenants of the environs do not appear to derive any advantage from the vicinity of the great apostle of progress and amelioration. Several of the houses are badly roofed, and the walls are cracked, and the houses are on a level with the marshy soil covered with manure, which gives them the ague during two-thirds of the year. On the other hand, however, there is a profuse distribution of little books, such as the 'Berger de Kravan,' and other Socialist publications.' If," says the "Ordre," after copying this account, "all that M. Eugène Sue enjoys is *le nécessaire*, in what does he make *le superflu* to consist?" Sue is now (Jan. 1852) a refugee. "Every one knows" (says a writer in "Fraser's Magazine") "that, before he wrote 'The Mysteries of Paris,' he published a 'History of the French Navy,' which met with very poor success, and entailed no small loss on the publisher. The work was too serious for a novel. Something rather disagreeable happened to the author a few weeks after the publication of this work. He received a parcel from Toulon through the Foreign Office, with three seals attached. He opened it very anxiously, and found a small box within,

containing a silver medal, on which was engraved the following inscription, in French: — 'To Monsieur Eugène Sue, a token of gratitude from the French navy.' This was engraved in large letters; but under it, in very small type, were found these words:—'*For the History of the French navy he did not write.*'"

SWEDEN AND NORWAY, OSCAR I., KING OF, born July 4, 1799, is the only issue of the marriage of Marshal Bernadotte with Desirée Clary, daughter of a merchant of Marseilles, whose elder sister married Joseph Bonaparte. Oscar Bernadotte was placed, at the age of nine years, in the Imperial Lyceum, where his name may yet be seen on the walls of the various *quartiers* of that establishment. Marshal Bernadotte was elected Crown Prince of Sweden, accepted the reversion of the crown, and borrowing 2,000,000 of francs that he might not appear in Stockholm with only his sword, proceeded at once to that capital with his son, after both had abjured Catholicism on the road and embraced Lutheranism, the dominant religion of Sweden. The young Oscar now received the title of Duke of Sudermania, which Charles XIII. had borne before his election, and his education immediately became a matter of concern with his father, who saw that in this respect he must consult the susceptibilities of his new country. Bernadotte had shortly the satisfaction of seeing his son soon forget his French in the course of a year, and acquire under the teaching of the poet Atterborn perfect mastery over the Swedish language. In 1818, when, after the death of Charles XIII., Bernadotte ascended the throne, he transmitted to Oscar the title of Chancellor of the University of Upsal, of which next year he became a student. His military instruction kept pace with his literary instruction, and in 1818 he became Colonel of the Guards. He has scarcely quitted the Swedish soil during his reign. Once, however, under pretence of going to visit the banks of the Rhine, he pushed as far as Eichstadt, in Bavaria, the residence of Eugène Beauharnais, duke of Leuchtenberg, whose eldest daughter Josephine he married, July 19 of that year. This marriage was much talked of in Europe, as seeming to prove that the plebeian origin of the new Swedish dynasty had not been forgotten by the courts of the Continent. In 1834 he was named Viceroy of Norway; and in 1838, in con-

sequence of the continued illness of his father, regent of the kingdom. In 1844 he ascended the throne, and became heir to a personal fortune of 80,000,000 francs, saved by the late king from a civil list of but 3,000,000 francs per annum. His government has been marked by liberality and justice. He has four sons and two daughters, one of whom the old King of Denmark wished to make his third wife, but received a positive refusal.

T.

TALFOURD, SIR THOMAS NOON, Author, and one of the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas, was born Jan. 26, 1795, at Reading, in Berkshire, where his father was a brewer, his mother being the daughter of a dissenting preacher. His scholarship was gained at the grammar-school of that county-town under Dr. Valpy, an excellent tutor; and even whilst a lad he began to show his leanings towards literature and politics, by scribbling small poems to fill a small volume, and by sending congratulatory verses to a newspaper when Burdett was liberated from the Tower. At the age of eighteen he came to London to study law under Chitty the pleader, and at the same time began to use his pen on political subjects, contributing to the current printed discussions of the day some papers chiefly in favour of religious toleration. In 1815 he entered the lists as a critic, selecting poetry for his theme, and attracting attention to his efforts by a declaration that Wordsworth—then but little regarded—was the first poet of the time. From this time forward he was a constant contributor to various periodicals, and made acquaintance with the rising literary men of the day. In 1821 he was called to the bar; and in 1822 he married a Miss Rutt, by whom he has had a large family. Rising in his profession, he became in succession a leading man at the bar, an M.P., a serjeant-at-law, and finally a judge. Meanwhile he had not forsaken literature. He found time to write "Ion," a tragedy—successfully produced at Covent Garden on the 26th of May, 1836, Mr. Macready supporting the character of the hero. This play was followed

by "The Athenian Captive" and "Glencoe," both clever, but far less so, and less successful, than "Ion." These were the fruits of the leisure afforded by the legal vacations, and each of these Talfourd has contrived to make produce some literary fruit. One book that enjoyed a passing popularity was entitled "Vacation Rambles." To Justice Talfourd the authors of England are indebted for exertions in favour of the law of literary copyright.

TENNYSON, ALFRED, Poet Laureate, is the son of a Lincolnshire clergyman, and was born about 1810. His first volume of poems appeared in 1830, and received the welcome that has been given to more than one public favourite, by being well-abused in the "Quarterly Review" and "Blackwood's Magazine," and as warmly admired by many who do not pin their faith to the school of Pope and the classics. In 1833 he published a second volume, which contained many poems of undoubted merit and great beauty: one of which, "The Miller's Daughter," is said to have so charmed her Majesty as to secure its author the pension he now enjoys, and to have paved the way to his selection for the laureateship. Ten years elapsed, and then two volumes were offered to the public, containing some new works and some old ones newly polished; and since then he has given us "The Princess," a longer and more ambitious work, and "In Memoriam," a tribute to the memory of his departed friend Hallam.

THACKERAY, WILLIAM MAKEPEACE, Author, was born in India, in 1811. He is of good family, and was originally intended for the bar, of which he is now a member. He kept seven or eight terms at Cambridge, but left the University without taking a degree, for the purpose of becoming an artist. After about three years' desultory practice he devoted himself to literature, abandoning the design of making a position as a painter, and only employed his pictorial talents in illustration of his own writings. For a short time he conducted a literary and artistic review, similar in plan to the "Athenæum;" but the new journal, although characterised by great ability, perished in competition with established rivals. He also, with the assistance of Dr. Maginn, started a newspaper; but this was unsuccessful. His

first distinction was won as a writer in "Fraser's Magazine," "Punch," and other periodicals of character. In the latter amusing periodical appeared his "Jeames's Diary," a clever satire on the follies of the railway mania, exposing the hollow foundation upon which railway fortunes and reputations were made. His "Snob Papers," published in the same manner, have since been collected and reprinted with great success. His satire is as keen as that of Fielding. His "Paris Sketch-Book" appeared in 1840. His "Irish Sketch-Book," with numerous engravings drawn by the author, was published in 1845. In the next year appeared his "Notes of a Journey from Cornhill to Grand Cairo;" and in 1847 the first numbers of "Vanity Fair" appeared, in the proper name of their author. This, Thackeray's first fully-developed novel, has been followed by "Arthur Pendennis," completed in 1851. His Christmas-book, entitled "The Kickleburies on the Rhine," was attacked by a writer in the "Times;" whereupon Mr. Thackeray replied, in a very unmistakeable way, in a preface to the second edition of the work. The critic fared very badly in the contest. This is not the only occasion in which our author has had to take up the cudgels in his own behalf. Having sketched a *soi-disant* literary man in no very flattering way, the picture was complained of by writers in the "Examiner" and the "Morning Chronicle;" whereupon Thackeray explained, in the latter journal, his views on the subject in the following terms:—"The Dignity of Literature. To the Editor of the 'Morning Chronicle.' Sir,—In a leading article of your journal of Thursday the 3d instant you commented upon literary pensions and the *status* of literary men in this country, and illustrated your argument by extracts from the story of 'Pendennis,' at present in course of publication. You have received my writings with so much kindness, that, if you have occasion to disapprove of them or the author, I can't question your right to blame me, or doubt for a moment the friendliness and honesty of my critic; and however I might dispute the justice of your verdict in my case, I had proposed to submit to it in silence, being indeed very quiet in my conscience with regard to the charge made against me. But another newspaper of high character and repute takes occasion to question the principles advocated in your article of Thursday; arguing in favour of pensions for literary persons, as you argued

against them; and the only point upon which the 'Examiner' and the 'Chronicle' appear to agree unluckily regards myself, who am offered up to general reprehension in two leading articles by the two writers: by the latter, for 'fostering a baneful prejudice' against literary men; by the former, for 'stooping to flatter' this prejudice in the public mind, and condescending to caricature (as is too often my habit) my literary fellow-labourers, in order to pay court to 'the non-literary class.' The charges of the 'Examiner' against a man who has never, to his knowledge, been ashamed of his profession, or (except for its dulness) of any single line from his pen—grave as they are, are, I hope, not proven. 'To stoop to flatter' any class is a novel accusation brought against my writings; and as for my scheme 'to pay court to the non-literary class by disparaging my literary fellow-labourers,' it is a design which would exhibit a degree not only of baseness but of folly upon my part, of which, I trust, I am not capable. The editor of the 'Examiner' may, perhaps, occasionally write, like other authors, in a hurry, and not be aware of the conclusions to which some of his sentences may lead. If I stoop to flatter anybody's prejudice for some interested motives of my own, I am no more nor less than a rogue and a cheat: which deductions from the 'Examiner's' premises I will not stoop to contradict, because the premises themselves are simply absurd. I deny that the considerable body of our countrymen described by the 'Examiner' as 'the non-literary class' has the least gratification in witnessing the degradation or disparagement of literary men. Why accuse 'the non-literary class' of being so ungrateful? If the writings of an author give a reader pleasure or profit, surely the latter will have a favourable opinion of the person who so benefits him. What intelligent man, of what political views, would not receive with respect and welcome that writer of the 'Examiner' of whom your paper once said, that 'he made all England laugh and think?' Who would deny to that brilliant wit, that polished satirist, his just tribute of respect and admiration? Does any man who has written a book worth reading—any poet, historian, novelist, man of science—lose reputation by his character for genius or for learning? Does he not, on the contrary, get friends, sympathy, applause—money, perhaps?—all good and pleasant things in themselves, and not ungenerously

awarded as they are honestly won. That generous faith in men of letters, that kindly regard in which the whole reading nation holds them, appear to me to be so clearly shown in our country every day, that to question them would be as absurd as, permit me to say for my part, it would be ungrateful. What is it that fills mechanics' institutes in the great provincial towns when literary men are invited to attend their festivals? Has not every literary man of mark his friends and his circle, his hundreds or his tens of thousands of readers? And has not every one had from these constant and affecting testimonials of the esteem in which they hold him? It is of course one writer's lot, from the nature of his subject or of his genius, to command the sympathies or awaken the curiosity of many more readers than shall choose to listen to another author; but surely all get their hearing. The literary profession is not held in disrepute; nobody wants to disparage it; no man loses his social rank, whatever it may be, by practising it. On the contrary: the pen gives a place in the world to men who had none before—a fair place fairly achieved by their genius; as any other degree of eminence is by any other kind of merit. Literary men need not, as it seems to me, be in the least querulous about their position any more, or want the pity of anybody. The money-prizes which the chief among them get are not so high as those which fall to men of other callings—to bishops, or to judges, or to opera-singers and actors: nor have they received stars and garters as yet, or peerages and governorships of islands, such as fall to the lot of military officers. The rewards of the profession are not to be measured by the money standard: for one man spends a life of learning and labour on a book which does not pay the printer's bill; and another gets a little fortune by a few light volumes. But, putting the money out of the question, I believe that the social estimation of the man of letters is as good as it deserves to be, and as good as that of any other professional man. With respect to the question in debate between you and the 'Examiner,' as to the propriety of public rewards and honours for literary men, I don't see why men of letters should not very cheerfully coincide with Mr. "Examiner" in accepting all the honours, places, and prizes, which they can *get*. The amount of such as will be awarded to them will *not*, we may be pretty sure, impoverish the country much;

and if it is the custom of the state to reward by money, or titles of honour, or stars and garters of any sort, individuals who do the country service, and if individuals are gratified by having 'Sir' or 'My lord' appended to their names, or stars and ribands hooked on their coats and waistcoats, as men most undoubtedly are, and as their wives, families, and relations are, there can be no reason why men of letters should not have the chance, as well as men of the robe or the sword; or why, if honour and money are good for one profession, they should not be good for another. No man in other callings thinks himself degraded by receiving a reward from his Government; nor, surely, need the literary man be more squeamish about pensions, and ribands, and titles, than the ambassador, or general, or judge. Every European State but ours rewards its men of letters; the American Government gives them their full share of its small patronage; and if Americans, why not Englishmen? If Pitt Crawley is disappointed at not getting a riband on retiring from his diplomatic post at Pumpernickel, if General O'Dowd is pleased to be called Sir Hector O'Dowd, K.C.B., and his wife at being denominated my Lady O'Dowd, are literary men to be the only persons exempt from vanity, and is it to be a sin in them to covet honour? And now, with regard to the charge against myself of fostering baneful prejudices against our calling—to which I no more plead guilty than I should think Fielding would have done if he had been accused of a design to bring the Church into contempt by describing Parson Trulliber—permit me to say, that before you deliver sentence it would be as well if you had waited to hear the whole of the argument. Who knows what is coming in the future numbers of the work which has incurred your displeasure and the 'Examiner's,' and whether you, in accusing me of prejudice, and the 'Examiner' (alas!) of swindling and flattering the public, have not been premature? Time and the hour may solve this mystery, for which the candid reader is referred 'to our next.' That I have a prejudice against running into debt, and drunkenness, and disorderly life, and against quackery and falsehood in my profession, I own; and that I like to have a laugh at those pretenders in it who write confidential news about fashion and politics for provincial *gobemouches;* but I am not aware of feeling any malice in describing this weakness,

or of doing anything wrong in exposing the former vices. Have they never existed amongst literary men? Have their talents never been urged as a plea for improvidence, and their very faults adduced as a consequence of their genius? The only moral that I, as a writer, wished to hint in the descriptions against which you protest, was, that it was the duty of a literary man, as well as any other, to practise regularity and sobriety, to love his family and to pay his tradesmen. Nor is the picture I have drawn 'a caricature which I condescend to,' any more than it is a wilful and insidious design on my part to flatter 'the non-literary class.' If it be a caricature, it is the result of a natural perversity of vision, not of an artful desire to mislead; but my attempt was to tell the truth, and I meant to tell it not unkindly. I have seen the bookseller whom Bludyer robbed of his books: I have carried money, and from a noble brother man-of-letters, to some one not unlike Shandon in prison, and have watched the beautiful devotion of his wife in that dreary place. Why are these things not to be described, if they illustrate, as they appear to me to do, that strange and awful struggle of good and wrong which takes place in our hearts and in the world? It may be that I worked out my moral ill, or it may be possibly that the critic of the 'Examiner' fails in apprehension. My efforts as an artist come perfectly within his province as a censor; but when Mr. 'Examiner' says of a gentleman that he is 'stooping to flatter a public prejudice,' which public prejudice does not exist, I submit that he makes a charge which is as absurd as it is unjust; and am thankful that it repels itself. And, instead of accusing the public of persecuting and disparaging us as a class, it seems to me that men of letters had best silently assume that they are as good as any other gentlemen, nor raise piteous controversies upon a question which all people of sense must take to be settled. If I sit at your table, I suppose that I am my neighbour's equal as that he is mine. If I begin straightway with a protest of 'Sir, I am a literary man, but I would have you to know I am as good as you,' which of us is it that questions the dignity of the literary profession—my neighbour, who would like to eat his soup in quiet, or the man of letters who commences the argument? And I hope that a comic writer, because he describes one *author* as improvident, and another as a parasite, may not

only be guiltless of a desire to vilify his profession, but may really have its honour at heart. If there are no spendthrifts or parasites amongst us, the satire becomes unjust; but if such exist, or have existed, they are as good subjects for comedy as men of other callings. I never heard that the Bar felt itself aggrieved because 'Punch' chose to describe Mr. Dunup's notorious state of insolvency, or that the picture of Stiggins in 'Pickwick' was intended as an insult to all Dissenters, or that all the attorneys in the empire were indignant at the famous history of the firm of 'Quirk, Gammon, and Snap;' are we to be passed over because we are faultless, or because we cannot afford to be laughed at? And if every character in a story is to represent a class, not an individual—if every bad figure is to have its obliged contrast of a good one, and a balance of vice and virtue is to be struck — novels, I think, would become impossible, as they would be intolerably stupid and unnatural, and there would be a lamentable end of writers and readers of such compositions. — Believe me, sir, to be your very faithful servant, W. M. THACKERAY. Reform Club, Jan. 8, 1850." It must be mentioned, that the signature under which he usually wrote in "Fraser" was Michael Angelo Titmarsh, and that in addition to the books named in this slight sketch of his literary career, he is the author of "The Great Hoggarty Diamond," "Dr. Birch and His Young Friends," "Our Street," and "Mrs. Perkins's Ball."

THALBERG, SIGISMUND, Musician, was born at Genève, January 7, 1812. When still young, he came to Vienna, where he received instruction from Hummel, 1827. He played for the first time in public 1830, made his first appearance in Paris 1835, and from that moment his name rapidly attained great celebrity. Thalberg is the founder of the school of which Liszt, Döler, Chopin, and other composers of the present day, are followers. His compositions embrace concertos, fantasias, variations, études, &c., all for the piano.

THIERS, ADOLPHE, a French Politician and Historian, was born in 1798, at Marseilles, where his father was a locksmith. His friends having decided to make of him an *avocat*, he was sent to Aix, and studied there under M. Armand

Here he made the acquaintance of Messrs. Mignet, A. Crémieux, Alf. Rabbe, and other men subsequently eminent. In due time Thiers made his appearance at the bar, but with very indifferent success. Disappointed in the outset of his legal career, he turned to literature, and having gained a few prizes, trifling in emolument but of vast ultimate importance to him, turned his back upon Arnaud, Aix, and all that it contained, and set out for Paris. His adventures on the way appear to have been of a curious description, judging from the common testimony of friends and enemies. The former represent him as having fallen among thieves, who stripped him of all that he possessed; the latter publish stories of his connexion with a troop of strolling players. Be this as it may, the future historian of the Revolution and Empire arrived at the house of his friend Rabbe in woful plight. But he was received with kindness; the company, consisting of one or two friends who were present with Rabbe, commiserating his abject position, befriended him; Rabbe himself procured him an engagement as a caterer for news to one of the Parisian journals; and to Thiers' disgrace it may be added, when he afterwards attained power, Rabbe was one of the first whom he prosecuted. By means of great perseverance, Thiers now gained a footing in literary society, and was able to obtain an introduction to the celebrated deputy Manuel, who introduced him to the conductor of the "Constitutionnel;" and he was shortly afterwards engaged to write political articles. These being characterised by vigour of thought and great purity of style, excited much attention; they displayed in a striking manner the ingratitude of the writer, being directed against the election of his patron Manuel, the man who had taken him by the hand, and who had since been expelled from the Chamber by the Ultras and the Centre. In 1823 appeared the first volume of his "History of the French Revolution," which produced a lively sensation throughout the country, and added materially to the rising fame of the young author. The other volumes soon followed. The first edition sold off: a second was issued, and immediately after the revolution of 1830 a third edition was called for. At the time that Charles X. appointed Polignac Minister of Foreign Affairs, Thiers, with Carrel and others, established a journal called the "National," in which the first resistance to the

unconstitutional proceedings of that monarch was exhibited in the shape of a protest. After 1830 he obtained a subordinate post in the finance department, in which he displayed such unquestionable capacity, that he was proposed by Baron Louis as Minister of Finance, when the 1st-of-August Ministry of 1830 were going out of office. Thiers declined the post, contenting himself with the situation of Under-Secretary of State in Lafitte's government. About this period he was elected deputy for Aix, and soon distinguished himself by his financial ability and oratorical power. In 1832 he was appointed Minister of the Interior, in which office he signalised himself by the arrest of the Duchess of Berry. He soon resigned this post for the portfolio of Commerce and Public Works. In 1836 he was President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs, and in March 1840 he was again raised to the same dignity: but his turbulence, ambition, and imprudence obliged the king to request his retirement, since which time he was not called into office. He employed his leisure in writing his "History of the Consulate and Empire," in continuation of his former work. The revolution of February found him unprepared, and when the Republic was proclaimed, Thiers was a simple national guard with musket on shoulder. His talents and caution soon, however, secured him a position, first in the Constituent and then in the National Assembly. He professed to accept the republic heartily; and when Louis Napoleon was elevated to the Presidency, it was thought by many that Thiers, whom the prince had proclaimed as his minister in the expedition of Boulogne, would now take office. But the reverse is the fact: for Thiers is among those who were banished after the *coup d'état* of December 2d. A writer in the "British Quarterly Review" thus characterises the subject of this sketch:—"As to physical appearance, it is impossible to conceive a more ignoble little being than Adolphe Thiers. He has neither figure, nor shape, nor grace, nor mien; and truly, to use the unsavoury description of Cormenin (Timon), looks like one of those provincial barbers who, with brush and razors in hand, go from door to door offering their *savonnette*. His voice is thin, harsh, and reedy; his aspect sinister, deceitful, and tricky; a sardonical smile plays about his insincere and mocking mouth; and at first

view you are disposed to distrust so ill-favoured a looking little dwarf, and to disbelieve his story. But hear the persuasive little pigmy, hear him fairly out, and he greets you with such pleasant, lively, light, voluble talk, interspersed with historical remark, personal anecdote, ingenious reflections, all conveyed in such clear, concise, and incomparable language, that you forget his ugliness, his impudence, insincerity, and dishonesty. You listen, and, as Rousseau said in one of his most eloquent letters, 'in listening are undone.' 'C'est le roué le plus amusant de nos roués politiques, le plus aigu de nos sophistes, le plus subtil et le plus insaisissable de nos prestigiateurs—c'est le Bosco de la Tribune,' says the incisive and pungent Timon. As a journalist he was successful, as a historian he was popular, as a minister he was notorious, and national to a certain extent. He has, no doubt, many talents and many defects, but his successes in life are more owing to his worst vices than to his negative virtues. He is probably the most intelligent man in Europe, if a perception of the wants and wishes of the million indicate intelligence; but he is possibly also one of the most insincere, mocking, and corrupt of public men, and at bottom one of the shallowest in all sound knowledge. 'Donnez-moi un petit quart d'heure,' he wrote to Spring Rice, in 1834, 'pour m'expliquer le système financier de la Grande Bretagne.' In no other country than France could such a clever charlatan be tolerated or endured; and it says little for the national morality or feeling, that he has been so long not only suffered, but petted and propped up, by applauding deputies and admiring millions."

THIRLWALL, DR. CONNOP, Historian and Bishop of St. David's, was born in 1797, at Bowers Gifford, Essex. His University honours were,—Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge; Craven Scholar, 1815; Bell's Scholar, 1815; 22d Senior Optime and Senior Chancellor's Medallist, 1818; Examiner for the Classical Tripos, 1828–29–32, and 34. He was formerly Examiner in the University of London; but his chief distinction is derived from the production of his "History of Greece."

THOMPSON, COL. THOMAS PEYRONNET, Political Reformer and Author, was born at Hull, in 1783. He was edu-

cated at Hull Grammar School, then conducted by Joseph Milner, the author of the "History of the Christian Church;" and his parents being high Tories, the influence of his early days must have been entirely favourable to the old order of things. In October, 1798, he entered Queen's College, Cambridge, as a pensioner; and in 1802 took his Bachelor's degree. At the end of the same year he made an experimental voyage of six weeks from the port of Hull, and next year sailed as a midshipman in the Isis, 50 guns, the flagship of Vice-admiral Gambier, on the Newfoundland station. The vessel proceeded to Newfoundland in June, and on the way several prizes were taken, one of which was placed under Thompson's care, to be taken to the station. Next month he was on the Portsmouth station, in the Pomare frigate, and received intelligence of his election as a Fellow of Queen's College. In 1806 he left the navy, and entered the army as a second-lieutenant. With his regiment, then the 95th, he proceeded to Buenos Ayres with Crawford's expedition, and was taken prisoner, but liberated under the convention which shortly followed the attack on that town. In 1808 he was sent out, by the influence of Mr. Wilberforce, to be governor of Sierra Leone, and exerted himself more vigorously than was pleasing to the Home Government in putting down the slave-trade, and upon news of his administration reaching England, his successor was soon nominated and sent out. In 1812 he returned to the active service of the army, at first in the 7th Fusiliers, and soon afterwards in the 14th Light Dragoons. In 1813 he joined the service-squadron of his regiment at Elisonde, and acquired a regimental reputation as a bold and skilful officer, an unbeliever in the efficacy of punishment as a means of ruling, and a man of simple habits. In the campaign in the south of France, in 1814, he was taken from the regiment, and served under the personal orders of General Fane, commanding the brigade. At the peace of 1814 he was promoted to the rank of captain in the 50th Foot, and exchanged into the 17th Light Dragoons. He arrived at Bombay in the middle of 1815, and having learned Arabic, was attached to the expedition against the Wahabees of the Persian Gulf as interpreter. In this capacity he was present at several encounters, and took a principal part in negociating the treaty with those tribes, in which the slave-trade was declared to be piracy.

Upon the return of the expedition to Bombay, Thompson was appointed commander of a foot regiment, with eleven hundred men under his orders. In 1821 he returned to England, and in June, 1825, was promoted to an unattached majority, having previously been made senior-captain. In January, 1827, he effected an exchange into the 65th Foot; and in February, 1829, was promoted to an unattached lieutenant-colonelcy of infantry. Having now settled in England, he cultivated the acquaintance of legislators and men of letters,—among others, of Jeremy Bentham and Dr. Bowring. He also began to contribute to the "Westminster Review," of which he afterwards became a joint proprietor. He also wrote, from time to time, a number of pamphlets and detached publications on the Greek question, and on various subjects of political economy, amongst which was his defence of Adam Smith's theory of rent against that of Ricardo. In 1827 appeared his famous "Corn-law Catechism," which did more than any other single publication to undermine the Protectionist system of commercial policy. In 1828 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. In 1829 he published his "Enharmonic Theory of Music," which he supported in successive numbers of the "Westminster." In the next year his "Geometry without Axioms" was given to the public. In 1835 he was elected, by a majority of five, for Hull. In the next election he was not returned, and then remained for some years without a seat, until returned for the constituency of Bradford, in Yorkshire, which he now represents. His votes have always been given on the side of civil and religious liberty and reform. He was, accordingly, one of the most strenuous opposers of the attempt made in 1851 to assert the despotic authority of a foreign ecclesiastic in this realm. He rarely speaks in the House, although one of its most diligent working members; but when he does rise, his address is always clear, forcible, and directly to the point. Having been one of the earliest and ablest assertors of the principles of free trade, he is still a hardy defender of the conquest which these principles have achieved.

TIMBS, JOHN, born about 1795, a Writer and Compiler of Books and Papers for the People. He worked for Sir Richard Phillips, and was subsequently editor of the two-penny paper called the "Mirror;"—one of the very first of

the cheap weekly prints now so abundant in England, and which attracted the notice and public praise of Lord Brougham in his "useful-knowledge-promoting" days. Mr. Timbs is now the working editor of the "Illustrated London News."

TRURO, THOMAS, BARON, Lord Chancellor of England, was born 1782, the son of an attorney in the City. He was placed in St. Paul's School, where he formed an enduring intimacy with Frederick Pollock, now Lord Chief Baron. From this school he was removed to his father's office. His unwearied industry and quickness of perception were generally observable during his clerkship; and upon his admission as an attorney business flowed in upon him. In the course of a few years, with rare self-reliance, he relinquished a practice producing several thousands a-year, and was called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1817. He chose the Western Circuit. His intimate and practical knowledge of the law, industry, and a ready command of language, gave him great advantages. It was his merit that he never undertook more business than he could perform, and, having accepted a brief, disregarded his ease in his determination to serve the interests of his client. In 1824 he was made a serjeant, and king's serjeant in 1827. In 1831 he was returned to parliament for the borough of Newark; in 1832 he contested that borough without success, but was again elected in 1835 and in 1837. In 1839 he became Solicitor-General, and received the honour of knighthood. In 1841 he was appointed Attorney-General, and was returned for Worcester. In July 1846 he was re-appointed Attorney-General, and the same week Chief-Justice of the Common Pleas; a position which he retained until elevated to the woolsack, when he was created a peer, as Baron Truro, of Bowes, county Middlesex. He has been twice married; viz. in 1813, to the widow of William Devaynes, Esq., and in 1845 to Augusta-Emma, Mademoiselle D'Este, daughter of the late Duke of Sussex.

TUPPER, MARTIN FARQUHAR, Author, born in London in 1811, educated at the Charterhouse, and at Christ Church, Oxford, where he took the degrees of B.A. and M.A. He subsequently entered at Lincoln's Inn, and in

due time was called to the bar, but never practised as a barrister. Mr. Tupper's first publication of note was the first series of "Proverbial Philosophy, a Book of Thoughts and Arguments originally treated." It was published in 1837, and a second series followed in 1842. Six editions of this work were sold, and it has been often reprinted and largely read in America. In 1839 he published "A Modern Pyramid, to commemorate a Septuagint of Worthies;" designed to furnish illustrations and descriptions of character of seventy of the most remarkable personages of sacred and profane history, ancient and modern. In 1840, Mr. Tupper produced a volume of odds and ends, called "An Author's Mind." Mr. Tupper's next work was a rural novel, entitled "The Crock of Gold," designed to illustrate the commandment "Thou shalt not kill," as well as to show the curse and hardening effect of avarice, was published in 1844. The same year he published two other works of fiction, in one volume each, namely, "Heart, a social novel;" and "The Twins, a domestic novel." The main design of these works appears to have been, to introduce some exciting scenes, and some episodial bursts of religious writing; and they, more or less, illustrate, the one the commandment "Thou shalt not commit adultery," and the other that of "Thou shalt not covet." His next work, published in 1845, is entitled "A Thousand Lines," a tract of but sixty pages, containing poems on various subjects. Since that time, Mr. Tupper has promoted the publication of a magazine entitled "The Anglo-Saxon," and has written a variety of short poems.

TUSCANY, LEOPOLD II., GRAND-DUKE OF, the second son of the Grand-Duke Ferdinand III., was born at Florence, October 3, 1797. While Leopold was yet an infant, his father was driven out of his states by the French. The child was educated, first at Salzburg, the secularised bishopric of which had been given to his father at the peace of Luneville, by way of indemnity, and afterwards at Warzburg. He received a German and Italian education, and in 1814 was restored to Florence on the fall of Napoleon. In 1817 he espoused the Princess Anne, daughter of Maximilian of Saxony, and succeeded his father June 17, 1824. During the long period of continental misgovernment which extended from 1815 to 1848, it is to the honour of Leopold

that his government was the most liberal in Italy. While following in the footsteps of his father and grandfather (Leopold II. emperor of Germany), he was ever alive to the material wants of his people, and he never forgot their moral and intellectual welfare. Besides making the best roads and bridges in Italy, he patronised scientific undertakings, founded institutions of beneficence, raised the standard of university education, and reorganised the administration of justice. The religious toleration which formed the basis of his system of government was manifested in the support he gave to the Protestant communities of Pisa, Florence, and Livorno. Tuscany under Leopold was long the envied of all the states of Italy. When the era of political change came, Leopold declared himself anxious to co-operate in effecting all possible ameliorations, and for a time appeared likely to weather the storm which agitated his country. Anti-monarchical ideas, however, he could not be expected to encourage; nor, as a prince of the House of Austria, was he likely to view with favour the attempts to wrest Lombardy from the hands of the Hapsburgs. The period came when he could no longer control his position, and he withdrew to await the subsidence of political feeling and the march of events. A Republic was proclaimed during his absence, but was only of brief duration: the victorious Austrians tolerating no such irregularities. The grand-duke returned to his capital amid demonstrations of joy, and on the 22d of April, 1850, a convention was signed, by which 10,000 Austrian soldiers should occupy Tuscany and support the authority of the sovereign. This convention may be considered as having been imposed on the grand-duke, who was then entirely in the hands of his powerful neighbours. He has little or no control over the duchy, which is really governed by Radetzky in his peculiarly arbitrary manner.

V.

VICTORIA, QUEEN OF ENGLAND, only child of the late Duke of Kent and of the Princess Louisa-Victoria of Saxe-Coburg (who at the date of her marriage with his royal

highness was relict of the Hereditary Prince of Leiningen) was born May 24, 1819. Her general education was directed by the Duchess of Northumberland. By the desire of William IV., the late Lord Melbourne familiarised her mind with the leading principles of constitutional government, and it was therefore no wonder that,—finding that nobleman at the helm of affairs when she came to the throne, January 20, 1837, —she maintained him in that position without hesitation. Her Majesty's coronation took place June 28, 1838, with great pomp. Her Majesty was married to Prince Albert, of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, on the 10th of February, 1840. Happily, the political constitution under which we live, and the high discretion which has marked her Majesty's government, render unnecessary in this notice such an analysis of personal government as that given in this volume in the notices of other living sovereigns.

W.

WEBSTER, DANIEL, an American Statesman, the first orator of his country, was born in Salisbury, New Hampshire, January 18th, 1782. His father fought for England in the French war, and against her in the Revolution. Daniel was the youngest but one of ten children, and early displaying uncommon talents with feebleness of constitution, he was chosen to be the scholar of the family, with the intention of fitting him to teach school during winter as a means of support. He was prepared for Dartmouth College, where he distanced all competition, and graduated in 1801. He began his law studies, and was admitted to the bar in 1805. He commenced practice in Boscawen, and in 1807 removed to Portsmouth, and for nine years had to contest his advance with Jeremiah Mason and other eminent men. The war of 1812, which drew into the public councils so many statesmen, found Webster, at the age of thirty, a member for Hampshire. His first speech established his reputation. In 1816 he retired from public life to retrieve his fortune, which had disappeared during the great fire at Portsmouth. He removed to Boston, and for several years practised his profession with great success. In the convention of dele-

gates to revise the constitution of Massachussets, Webster was the controlling spirit. A greater occasion was at hand. The last hour of the second century from the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers was sounding. From the consecrated rock, by whose everlasting base the Mayflower first swung to her new-world moorings, he pronounced an oration, which was stereotyped in the heart of every American and in the literature of the world. His next great oration was delivered on the occasion of laying the foundation-stone of an obelisk on the field of Bunker's Hill. Again, in July 1826, just half a century after the declaration of Independence, two patriarchs of freedom left their blessing on the nation and died, almost at the same hour. Webster commemorated the services of the ascended patriots, and associated for ever his own name with all that is most venerated in the memories of those great men. He returned to Congress in 1823, and remained in the lower house until 1827, when he was raised to the Senate. He fills at this moment the office of Secretary of State in the cabinet at Washington. His triumphs in the tribune are without number. He is called in America the Expounder of the Constitution, of which he has also been the chief defender. The majesty of his person, the unfathomed depths and varied intonations of his voice, his manner always just as excited as his soul, the divine substantiality of his mind, and the unwasting resources of his learning and imagination, stamp him as the colossal intellect of America.

WELLINGTON, ARTHUR WELLESLEY, DUKE OF, fourth son of the second Earl of Mornington, was born at Dangan Castle, in the county of Meath, on the 1st of May, 1769, the year which witnessed the birth of Cuvier, Napoleon, Soult, and other great men. He received the first part of his education at Eton, whence he proceeded to the Military College of Angiers, in the department of the Maine and Loire, then directed by Pignerol, the modern Vauban. Napoleon Bonaparte was at the same time receiving instruction in the sister school of Brienne. On the 7th of March, 1787, when in his eighteenth year, Arthur Wesley (for that was the form of his name he at first adopted) was gazetted to an ensigncy in the 73d Regiment, and on the following *Christmas Day* was promoted to a lieutenancy in the 76th. *In the succeeding* month he exchanged into the 41st, and

on the 25th of June was appointed to the 12th Light Dragoons. On the 30th of June, 1791, he was promoted to a company in the 58th Foot, and on the 31st of October, 1792, he obtained a troop in the 18th Light Dragoons. At the general election in the summer of 1790 he was returned for the borough of Trim, the patronage of which belonged to the house of Mornington. He rarely addressed the House, and his speaking was devoid of that terseness, lucidity, and force, which have since created a style scarcely less proverbial than the laconic eloquence of old. On the 30th of April, 1793, Captain Wellesley was gazetted major of the 33d Foot; and on the 30th of the following September he succeeded to the lieutenant-colonelcy of the same. Thus in five years, in which he had seen no active service, he found himself the actual commander of a veteran regiment. In the following year the 33d received orders to join the Earl of Moira's expedition to the coasts of France, and was actually embarked when contrary orders came, and the vessels sailed for Ostend to reinforce the Duke of York. The fate of the war had already been decided when he arrived in the Low Countries; and all that remained to be done was to cover in the best possible manner the retreat of the Duke of York's army. In this service Lieut.-colonel Wellesley, who, as senior officer, commanded three battalions, was twice engaged with the enemy, repulsing him at Alost on the 6th July, 1794, and again at Mechlin six days after. Early in the ensuing spring the 33d embarked at Bremen for England. Within four months of their return, Wellesley had reorganised his regiment, and reported it fit for service; and in October, 1795, embarked with it at Southampton for the West Indies, but was driven back by winds and tempests. In April, 1796, the regiment sailed for the East Indies: Wellesley joined it at the Cape, having received his Colonel's commission May 3d. In the spring of 1797 his brother, the Earl of Mornington, better known to history as the Marquis Wellesley, was appointed Governor-general of India, and Colonel Wellesley had reason to expect that opportunities of distinguishing himself would not long be wanting. Shortly after the Earl's arrival in India, it was judged necessary to make war upon Tippoo Sultan, who, encouraged by promises of French aid and the presence of French officers in his army, was intriguing against the British. An expedition

against Seringapatam, the supposed invulnerable capital of the Mysore territory, was organised under General Harris, and the Nizam's contingent, with which the 33d was incorporated, was placed under Colonel Wellesley. The march to the Mysore capital was difficult, and interrupted by frequent collisions with the sultan's troops. At Mallavelly, Wellesley's detachment had to accept battle with Tippoo, who, however, continued his retreat to Seringapatam, after suffering a rapid defeat. On the 3d of April the march was completed by the entire force, and operations at once commenced. On the 5th, Colonel Wellesley was ordered to attack with the 33d and two native regiments a small wood, called the Sultaun Pettah Tope, by night. The darkness was intense, the *terrain* unknown, and intersected with watercourses. The troops and their commander lost their way, and it was necessary to abandon the attempt. Twelve men of the 33d were cut off, carried to Seringapatam, and by Tippoo's orders barbarously murdered. Such a disaster, it is obvious, might have befallen the bravest and most experienced officer; nevertheless, Wellesley probably owed it to his powerful connexions, that it did not become a barrier to his future employment in undertakings of great responsibility. The next day he renewed the attempt, and was completely successful. On the 4th of May, Seringapatam was stormed, upon which occasion Colonel Wellesley commanded the reserve in the trenches. Plunder began almost before the conquest was complete, and Colonel Wellesley marched his reserve into the town to restore order. It fell to his lot, in company with Sir David Baird, to discover and recognise Tippoo under the heaps of dead. He was at once appointed commander and governor of Seringapatam, and immediately commenced his duties by repressing rapine and punishing oppression, whether by officers or men, in that stern spirit of discipline which has always distinguished his command. As soon as the government and territory of Mysore had been settled, he was appointed to administer the affairs of the whole district in the name of the puppet prince, retaining his command in Seringapatam. In the beginning of September, 1800, he left Seringapatam for a short time to arrest the course of Dhoondiah Waugh, a Mahratta freebooter, who had collected about 3000 mounted followers, and dubbed himself King of the Two Worlds. He speedily came up

with the force of this rover at Conaghall, and on the 10th of the same month routed the marauders and slew their commander. In 1801 he left Seringapatam a second time for Trincomalee, being ordered to join a force assembled there to act against the Mauritius. Just then he received an order from England to sail with three thousand men from Bombay for Egypt, and decided to comply with the latter of these conflicting injunctions, when an attack of fever laid him completely aside, and on his recovery he was restored to the command of the Mysore territory, which he held until he left India. On the 20th of April, 1802, Colonel Wellesley was raised by his brother, the Governor-general, to the rank of major-general; an occurrence deserving of notice, as the first of his promotions which can be connected in any way with his merits. In the same year he was called to a far greater command than had yet been confided to him. The Mahratta war, the object of which was to break the power of Scindiah, Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar, which was becoming dangerous to British interests, was resolved. Gen. Wellesley, upon whom the supreme civil and military authority had been conferred in the provinces of the Nizam and the Mahratta states, took the field against Scindiah and his allies August 6, 1803. Negotiations proving fruitless, Wellesley marched upon the Pettah and fort of Ahmednuggur (the latter being the strongest in the Peninsula), and which he reached unopposed, on the 8th of August. The fort was carried by escalade, 300 men having succeeded in mounting a bastion, when a cannon ball broke the last ladder, and thus cut off all communication with their comrades. They were, however, a gallant band, and drove all before them till they reached one of the gates, which they opened. Havthus let in the rest of the storming party, the capture of the place was immediately effected. The loss amounted to 140 men. On the 29th of August, 1803, the English army took peaceful possession of Aurungabad, a city of great extent, and once of truly Eastern magnificence. On the 29th of September, Colonel Stevenson, who in the meantime had stormed the Fort of Jaulna, had an interview with General Wellesley, and a joint attack upon the enemy, who was encamped at Boherdun, two marches' distance, was decided upon. The engagement which followed was the famous field of Assaye. Owing to the diffi-

culties of the route, the two commanders divided their forces and proceeded by different ways. The result was that on the 23d General Wellesley, who had been deceived by some inaccurate information, suddenly found himself in the presence of the Mahratta army, drawn up in battle array. 30,000 horse formed the right flank, and 20,000 infantry, supported by 100 guns, the centre and left. Against this immense force General Wellesley could only oppose 8000 men (of whom 1600 were cavalry), and seventeen pieces of cannon. Not more than 1500 were Englishmen. Notwithstanding this enormous disparity, an immediate encounter was the British general's only safe policy. Any indecision would have been fatal, and Wellesley immediately formed on the heights with the most intrepid coolness. At the last moment, *instructâ acie*, the English general changed his front, having determined upon attacking the enemy's left instead of his right. This movement was cleverly and deliberately executed under the heavy cannonade of the Mahratta guns; and corresponding evolutions on the part of the enemy were also effected with very much greater success than could have been expected. Their front now became like one vast battery; and the English guns, which opened fire in return, were soon silenced. General Wellesley therefore ordered an assault with the bayonet upon the enemy's cannon, which were captured in spite of the indomitable resolution and obstinate bravery which Scindiah's gunners manifested. The officer to whom the command of the pickets with the 74th was intrusted, by an unfortunate error of judgment, had led his men into the very hottest fire, which, by a more circuitous route, he might have avoided. So severe was it that the line was much disordered, and could scarcely maintain its ground. Profiting by this error, a dense mass of the Mussulman horse stole round the enclosures of Assaye, and precipitated themselves upon the half-annihilated but yet dauntless 74th. At this crisis Colonel Maxwell, with the 19th cavalry and a corps of Sepoys, rushed upon the assailants, and with great slaughter utterly routed them. Disregarding the heavy fire of grape and musketry, he then turned on the enemy's left. The 74th and the light troops reformed and charged home, driving everything before them. In the meantime General Wellesley, with the 78th and the native horse, had carried the village and the guns on the

left; but the battle was not yet over. The Sepoys, maddened with the excitement of victory, had pushed their successes too far. A part of the vanquished army had rallied, and were beginning the conflict afresh; but Colonel Maxwell, who had reformed his brigade, immediately dashed amongst them, and destroyed their last chance of success. The defeat was total and complete: Scindiah's immense army was broken and fleeing in every direction. The British loss was of course considerable. It was returned as follows:—Killed, 428; wounded, 1138; missing, 18: total, 1584. Amongst the casualties the most serious was that of Colonel Maxwell himself, who fell in the last charge. Gen. Wellesley's orderly was killed by his side, and his own horse was shot under him. After this brilliant engagement Gen. Wellesley was compelled to remain in the neighbourhood, from the difficulty of finding a place of security for his wounded; but Colonel Stevenson was despatched to harass the remnant of Scindiah's army, and to take Asseerghur and Burhampoor, all of which services he performed in a most satisfactory manner. Scindiah soon became tired of the war, and after some weeks more had been spent in manœuvres without coming again to blows, he sent a vakeel to make his peace with the English Government. General Wellesley agreed to an armistice with him, but refused to suspend hostilities against the Rajah of Berar. Scindiah, however, did not act in pursuance of the stipulation into which he had entered, namely, that he should remove his troops twenty coss to the east of Ellichpoor; and accordingly, on the 28th of November, General Wellesley attacked him at the village of Argaum, routing his troops with immense slaughter, and capturing 38 pieces of cannon, all his ammunition, many elephants and camels, and much baggage. The British loss was, killed, 46; wounded, 295; missing, 3: total, 349. On the 12th of the ensuing month, General Wellesley laid siege on Gawilghur, an important fortress, defended by strong works, and a large number of soldiers. On the night of the 14th, the breaches being reported practicable, it was decided to storm the place on the next morning. The outer fort was taken without difficulty, and the inner one was soon carried by escalade. This brought the *Mahratta* chieftains to reason. The Rajah of Berar urgently begged for a separate peace, which was concluded in two

days afterwards, on terms highly honourable and advantageous to the East India Company. Scindiah soon followed in the steps of his late ally, and the war was thus brought to a brilliant and prosperous termination. Some disturbances, however, broke out in various parts of the Nizam's territory, in consequence of the excesses of various formidable freebooters. On the 3d of February, 1804, after a few severe forced marches, General Wellesley came up with the most powerful and mischievous of these predatory bodies, and completely dispersed it. This may be said to have completed his Indian career; for although it was not until the 9th of March, 1805, that he published a notification to the troops that his resignation of the command he had held in the Deccan had been accepted—yet no events, save the testimonials he received, occurred, that need be here noticed. He was complimented by an order in council of the Governor-general and the Court of East Indian Directors; and a sword was presented to him by the inhabitants of Calcutta, where, as indeed throughout India, the most unbounded joy was caused by the manner in which the war had been terminated. The thanks of Parliament were also given to the Governor-general, and to the commanders, officers, and soldiers who had served in the campaign. Wellesley was created an extra Knight Companion of the Bath, his investiture being directed by the king to take place without waiting for a vacancy. Many addresses were presented to him by various public bodies in India, and a splendid gold vase, valued at 2000 guineas, was given to him, with a flattering address, by the officers of his division of the Indian army. Sir Arthur embarked for England on the 10th of March. On his arrival in England he was appointed to the command of the troops at Hastings; and on the 10th of April, 1806, married Catherine, third daughter of the second Earl of Longford. Shortly after his return to England he was ordered to join Earl Cathcart and General Don, who were proceeding with a British force to join the allied Austrian and Russian armies, in what they hoped was to be a march to Paris. Cathcart found on his arrival that the battle of Austerlitz had dissipated these dreams, and that Augereau was advancing against him with 40,000 men. He summoned a council of war, in which the newly-arrived Indian general was the youngest member.

All the old generals were for immediate return. Wellesley was for remaining and beating the enemy, which he maintained was a practicable feat, involving a minimum of risk, since their communications with the sea were secure. His advice was rejected with pity for his rashness and inexperience, and he shortly returned to England. Shortly afterwards he took his seat in the House of Commons, as member for Newport, Hants, and was for some time engaged in an unpleasant contest with a Mr. Paull, who had lately returned to England, and came forward in Parliament as accuser of the Marquis Wellesley and his brother. As the charges then brought forward were always contemptible, and are now forgotten, we may pass them by without further notice. On the 3d of April, 1807, he accepted the Irish Secretaryship, an office which he discharged in the spirit of a conquering soldier. In taking office, Sir Arthur had stipulated that his ministerial duties should not interfere with his professional; and accordingly, in the summer of 1807, he was once more employed on active service. Denmark, a state much too weak to maintain its independence if attacked by any of the great powers then at war, had been permitted to remain in a state of armed, but strict neutrality. At the commencement of the year, Murat had encroached upon her frontier; and though a collision had taken place between the outposts and the French troops, in which blood had been shed, the Crown Prince suffered himself to be pacified by a very inadequate explanation from the French general. This excited considerable alarm, inasmuch as in the basins of Copenhagen there was a formidable fleet, which, in the hands of Napoleon, would have been a most mischievous addition to his already vast resources. Nor was the fear that he would not abstain from further aggression groundless; for information had been obtained, that in the treaty of Tilsit he had entered into a secret compact with Alexander, the Russian emperor, to seize the Danish shipping. To prevent this, the English Government with the utmost possible promptness and secrecy, prepared a large fleet, under the command of Admiral Gambier, and equipped an army of 20,000 men, under that of Lord Cathcart. In the latter, Sir Arthur Wellesley held a distinguished post, and was, in *fact*, the real director of all the military operations. After a *fruitless* attempt at negotiation, the English army, which had

been reinforced by the German legion from Pomerania, was landed on the 16th, between Elsinore and the capital; the fleet then taking up a position nearer the city. On the 19th the fort of Fredericksweerk was taken by surprise, and its garrison of 350 men captured. On the 24th the city was invested. On the 19th of the next month, Sir Arthur, who had been sent with Generals Linsengen and Stuart to scatter the Danish forces under Generals Carstenkiold and Ozhoken, came up with them at Kioge. The attack was planned in the most scientific manner, and resulted in the complete overthrow of the Danes. Their loss was very great. Sixty officers and 1100 men, with ten pieces of cannon, were taken; and such was the panic of those who escaped, that they threw away their arms and clothing for more convenient flight. Sir Arthur, after this affair, then proceeded into the interior to awe the population, and to prevent insurrections. This he successfully accomplished, and was thus engaged when he was sent for by Lord Cathcart to prepare and sign articles of capitulation for the city, against which, in the mean time, operations had been actively carried on. The authorities of Copenhagen, however, obstinately refused to make terms till the 5th of September, when the conflagration of the city made them accept an armistice. The fleet, which numbered sixteen sail of the line, nine frigates, fourteen sloops, and many smaller vessels,—and which Napoleon had intended to have used in his projected invasion of England and Ireland,—was surrendered. The ships, together with ninety transports, were filled with naval stores; three vessels on the stocks were taken to pieces and brought to England, and two others were destroyed. On the 20th the British forces set sail for this country, which they reached safely with their capture. The loss in killed and wounded did not exceed two hundred soldiers and fifty seamen. It may be interesting to state here, that a mare belonging to Lord Rosslyn, proving in foal during the siege, the colt which she bore after her arrival in England was named after the Danish capital, and was long the Duke of Wellington's favourite horse. It bore its illustrious owner at Waterloo, and survived till 1835, when it died at Strathfieldsaye. On the 1st of February, 1808, the Speaker of the House of Commons, in publicly conveying to the officers engaged in the expedition the vote of thanks that three days previously had

been passed by a majority of eighty-one, made of Sir Arthur Wellesley's name special and flattering mention, to which Sir Arthur replied in modest and fitting terms. For the next few months he applied himself to his ministerial duties in Ireland. In 1808 the British Government considered that the determined, though hitherto unskilful, resistance of the Spanish nation to the seizure of their country by Bonaparte might be improved into a means of checking, if not breaking, the French power, and resolved to send Sir Arthur Wellesley, with an auxiliary force, to the Peninsula. He arrived at Corunna July 20, 1808, but was badly received by the Junta, which, infatuated by Dupont's foolish surrender of Baylen, fancied itself sufficiently powerful to cope with the resources of Bonaparte. Sir Arthur at once left for the Tagus, and landed at Mondego Bay, August 3d, 1808. General Spencer joined him there, their united forces amounting to 20,000 men. He at once marched rapidly along the coast for Lisbon, without waiting for Sir John Moore, his superior officer. A bitter fight took place at Roleia, where General Laborde unsuccessfully endeavoured to oppose his advance. Wellesley was pushing on to confront Junot, who had left Lisbon for the purpose of driving the English into the sea, when he learned from England that Sir Harry Burrard, a soldier of the old, cautious, do-nothing school, would immediately arrive to supersede him in the command. Sir Harry arrived just as Wellesley had planned the victory of Vimeira, saw it won, and prevented its being followed by the surrender of Lisbon, which must have ensued had Junot's retreat been cut off. The disgraceful convention of Cintra followed, to which Wellesley's assent was required and reluctantly yielded. After this Wellesley returned to England and resumed his duties as Irish secretary. Sir John Moore's disastrous campaign followed. As the British nation still looked forward to the emancipation of Portugal, an army was organised in 1809 for its accomplishment, and Wellesley, resigning his secretaryship, and making stipulations against his own supercession, took its command, and arrived at Lisbon April 22d, 1809. The series of great military successes which have rendered the name of Wellesley imperishable now began. The Marshals of the Empire were to feel, what their great master afterwards learnt *from* personal experience, that England had a general equal

to any of them in invention, promptitude, and daring. Wellesley found Soult secure at Douro, with 25,000 men, guarded by the river, whose bridges had been destroyed and boats secured. He nevertheless crossed the river, took the town, and saw Soult flying for several days before him without cannon, baggage, or military chest. Soult, who had five weeks before left Orense, in Galicia, with 25,000 men, fifty-eight pieces of artillery, and good stores, returned with 19,000 men, destitute of everything but their arms and ragged clothing. Marshal Victor, on hearing of this disaster, joined King Joseph and Jourdan, and advanced with vastly superior force upon the British in June. Soult, meanwhile, had reorganised his force, and was coming to fall on the rear of our army. On the 27th of June the battle of Talavera was fought, with 17,000 men. The French, after a terrific struggle, were driven over the Abenhe with the loss of ten guns, and Wellesley withdrew with honour into Portugal. For this battle and the passage of the Douro, Wellesley received, August 20, the honour of a peerage, by the title of Baron Douro and Viscount Wellington. Parliament voted him thanks and a pension of 2000*l.* a-year. The winter of 1809–10 was passed in forming plans for the defence of Portugal. Early in the October of the former year, Lord Wellington had visited Lisbon—a step which, during his absence, had caused the most energetic gossip. The gloomy prospects of the English army made it generally believed that his object was to enter into arrangements for the embarkation of his soldiers; and some of the Portuguese regiments talked openly of seizing the fortresses commanding the port, to prevent the noble Lord from running away! Far otherwise was his design. It was to take measures for the protection of the capital. The great problem of strategists at that period was the defence of Portugal against an overwhelming force. Looking at the frontier, this was declared by those best qualified to answer the question, to be impossible; but Lord Wellington's discriminating eye discerned a mode in which the object could be attained; and he forthwith planned the celebrated lines of Torres Vedras, which are admitted by all authorities to be, without exception, the most astonishing effort of military science that the whole history of war, whether modern or ancient, can boast. The semicircle of rising grounds between the Tagus and the sea were so strongly for-

tified as to be rendered impassable to a foe of any conceivable strength; and the whole peninsula on which Lisbon stands was thus completely isolated and rendered perfectly secure from aggression. The defences consisted of ten separate fortifications, mounting 444 guns. They formed two lines; the outer one, which was nearly forty miles in extent, having 100 guns, and the inner one (about eight miles within) 200, the remainder being disposed on redoubts along the shore and the river. Though the French, and indeed the British army, had scarcely heard of these magnificent works, nearly 7000 labourers had been employed, in addition to the large force of artillerymen and engineers, British and Portuguese, in the service of the army. In addition to the fortifications erected, mountains were scarped—rivers obstructed, in order to render the country swampy and impassable—trenches were dug, from which concealed infantry might pour withering volleys on the enemy—roads were blocked up outside the lines, and inside new ones were formed, so as to make the interior communications perfect—bridges were mined ready for explosion—and telegraphs were erected at Torres Vedras and other proper stations. These were placed under the direction of seamen from the fleet which lay in the Tagus, and which was quite strong enough to defend that side of the position. In a word, when the advanced guard entered the lines on the evening of the 8th of October, 1810, and saw the result of a year's secret labours, they were perfectly amazed at the wonderful skill and prudence which had been shown in their design and execution. In the spring of 1810, Massena advanced to drive the British to their ships. His force amounted to 80,000 men, to whom Wellington could oppose but 40,000. Wellington slowly retired only once, at Busaco, halting to give battle to the unsuspecting enemy, and on the 10th entered the lines of Torres Vedras. Massena halted in a state of stupor when he descried the bulwark against which his hopes were dashed; and having been led into a desolated country, saw his error, and retreated pursued by Wellington, who had been reinforced by sea. In 1811, Wellington received the thanks of the Crown and Parliament for having driven the French out of Portugal. In the same year, the terrible battles of Fuentes d'Onor and Albuera were fought, when Wellington was as usual victorious. Massena was now recalled, and Marmont

placed in his stead. Marmont, with 70,000 soldiers, came up with General, now Earl Wellington, at Giuvaldo, at a moment when, through the failure of General Craufurd, he had but 14,000 men with him. Little thinking that Wellington and Craufurd were both imperilled by disjunction, Marmont passed the day in planning an attack, meanwhile parading his splendid army in the plains below. Wellington unmoved looked down upon this force, not an emotion betraying itself upon his countenance, until, after nearly twenty-four hours' delay, the missing troops came up, when a long-suppressed exclamation showed how intense had been his anxiety. Marmont, upon subsequently learning the peril of his adversary, which he had failed to turn to his own advantage, was amazed at the genius which had dictated this "masterly inactivity," and was long in recovering his self-possession. During this interval Wellington effected a dignified retreat. Our narrative now brings us to the marvellous campaign of 1812, which may well excite our wonder, not less by the brilliant results achieved, than by the sufferings and privations which our troops sustained and despised. While Perceval and Canning were raising enormous sums by taxation, and pledging the substance of ages unborn to subsidise bad foreign armies, our own brave and able soldiers were kept penniless, shoeless, and often dinnerless, for months together. Wellington wrote, by turns, in the language of pathetic entreaty and indignation, but in vain. He had pledged his credit in 1811, until he was deeply in debt, and yet at the end of the campaign the men's pay was three months in arrear. Upon one occasion the army was three days without bread; and these were, nevertheless, the men who with Wellington would go anywhere, and perform any service. In 1812, notwithstanding these disadvantages, and although pressed by Soult and Marmont, he managed to deceive the French generals, and took Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz just as they thought he was retiring from the field. In the beginning of July the opposing armies again approached each other on the Tormes, near Salamanca. After some time had been spent in manœuvring on both sides, Wellington, unable from want of supplies longer to keep the field, retired by the road to Ciudad Rodrigo. Marmont thought to ruin Wellington's cause by sending Thomière's *corps d'armée*, with fifty guns, to turn the British left, and so cut off the

retreat by Ciudad Rodrigo. Wellington took
this division of the enemy's force, and attacke
weakened army. The decisive battle of Salama
fought. The French army was utterly defeate
off the field, having lost its artillery, sever
prisoners, and a great number slain and w
the 12th of August following Wellington m
umphal entry into Madrid, and was immediate
generalissimo of the Spanish armies. On the
same month he was created Marquis of Welli
Prince Regent. Determined to prevent the
Soult and Suchet with Joseph Bonaparte,
issued a spirited proclamation to the people of
leaving the capital, marched with a strong c
Clausel. On the 7th of September he reache
which Clausel, however, had left on the precedi
French general made an admirable retrograde
and on the 16th took up a strong position at
Camino. The next day 12,000 Spaniards ca
Wellington now offered battle. Clausel, howev
through Burgos, where he was joined by Caffa
viesca. On the 19th Lord Wellington investe
which was a fortress of immense strength, and
by 2500 picked men under General Dubreton.
guns, eleven field pieces, and six howitzers and
already been mounted, and Dubreton had in his
great deal more artillery and ample stores.
park consisted of only three 18-pounders and five
iron howitzers, with a most meagre supply of
and siege implements. Unpromising as was
Lord Wellington commenced operations on the
lading a horn work on a hill commanding the
the heights of St. Michael. On the 22d an
made to carry the inner line of defences in a
but after a vigorous effort, which lasted a quarte
it was given up, the commanding officer (Major
79th) and half the storming party being left
ditch. As the guns of the besiegers were soon
idea of breaching the walls was abandoned; and
of sap and mine was resorted to. The former w
be given up; but on the 26th, a portion of t
blown down. An attack was made, but the assa

tunately missed their way, owing to the darkness of the night, and this attempt also failed. On the 4th of October the breach, which had been entrenched, was again rendered practicable by means of five guns on St. Michael's hill, and another mine was sprung. The breach was carried, and lodgments effected, but the French on the next night and on the 7th sallied, and occasioned great loss. Another attempt was made on the 18th, and it was at first to some extent successful; but the forlorn hope was not well supported, and it failed. On the 21st the siege was formally raised, it being no longer safe to neglect the movements of the French army. The total losses were 509 killed, and 1505 wounded or missing. This unfortunate affair, the only decided reverse Lord Wellington ever met with, occasioned a most unpleasant sensation in England. In a letter to Lord Liverpool, he fearlessly took all the responsibility on himself, and narrated the successes of the campaign as a set-off to his failure. Since January he had sent home 20,000 prisoners, and had destroyed or then actually possessed 3000 pieces of the enemy's cannon: besides having obtained other important advantages with which the reader is already familiar. He attributed the failure of the siege to the misconduct of Major Laurie, who had made none of the dispositions he had ordered, and who, rushing forward like the leader of the forlorn hope, had been killed at the commencement of the assault; while the programme of the storm being found by the French on his body rendered it impossible to repeat the attempt. On the 3d of October Souham assumed the command of the French army, which now comprised 45,000 men; and being at last informed by the English newspapers of the real British strength, which was little more than half his own, but which he had imagined was much more formidable, he commenced a series of offensive movements; Wellington therefore began his retreat. On the 2d of November the French armies of the south and centre united, and the next day re-entered Madrid. Soult and Joseph then moved on in pursuit, and Wellington was once more compelled to alter his plans. Hill was directed to march on Alba de Tormes, while the commander-in-chief took up for the third time his old position of San Christoval. On the 9th and 10th the French made attempts upon the position at Alba—on the latter day with 20 pieces of cannon—but could make no im-

pression. On the 14th they crossed the Tormes in force at Encinas, about two leagues above Alba; and Wellington marched towards the Arapiles, from which he afterwards proceeded to Ciudad Rodrigo, whither he arrived on the 19th. He then cantoned his army between the Agueda and the Coa, and having thus secured Portugal from invasion, he terminated a campaign commenced with some of the most brilliant victories, and concluded by one of the ablest retreats on record. The conduct of the army since the investment of Burgos had given Lord Wellington the liveliest dissatisfaction. A frightful spirit of insubordination had spread widely, not only amongst the men, but amongst the officers also. The casualties which may be honourably accounted for from the investment of Burgos Castle were little above 3000 men; but nearly 5000 more were lost during the retreat, owing to their own misconduct. They were accustomed either to straggle away from their comrades in search of plunder, and so fall into the hands of the French, or were found by their foes drunk in wine-cellars. On the 28th of November Wellington issued a circular, in which he bitterly reproached the army with want of discipline, far greater than could be palliated by the unavoidable hardships of the case, and attributed the fault to the neglect and inattention of the officers, particularly of the captains and subalterns, by which the soldiers had often been exposed to unnecessary discomforts. He then set himself industriously to work to reorganise his forces. From England he had received assurances of liberal supplies and reinforcements; and having placed his army in the best quarters he could obtain, he proceeded to see that a better discipline was carried out. He also submitted to the Cortes a paper, dated Dec. 4th, as to the re-establishment of order in the Spanish armies, which were incalculably worse than the English. On the 26th Wellington visited Cadiz, and was received with truly Spanish pomp. He then proceeded to Lisbon, and was treated with equal distinction. His object was to enforce in person what he had already urged in his letters. He returned to his head-quarters on the 20th, and proceeded with his measures of reform. Very unpopular were they, but most salutary their results. Every abuse was mercilessly dragged to the light, and the offenders received full justice. The equipments of the army were repaired and completed, many valuable improvements which

last year's experience had suggested being introduced. The British Government, encouraged by the disasters of Napoleon in Russia, sent over reinforcement after reinforcement; and when Lord Wellington recommenced active operations, he was the commander of 200,000 men, the finest force ever directed by an English general. The Spanish armies had been likewise greatly improved; and the guerillas, who had always been the most useful native force Spain was able to bring into the field, were placed at Lord Wellington's disposal, and thus promised to be of still greater efficiency. Lord Wellington's opening of the campaign was planned with consummate skill. Keeping his plans veiled in the most impenetrable mystery, he put his troops in motion; and while the French leaders were discussing what he would do, he had effected a junction with the Anglo-Portuguese, the Estremaduran, and the Gallician armies on the Douro. All was completed by the 15th of June, 1813. The result of this masterly combination was to present a mass of 90,000 men, against whom the French could collect at no point many more than half that number. The communications of the French generals being entirely cut off, the scattered troops had only one resource, namely, to retreat as fast as possible towards the Pyrenees. Madrid was instantly abandoned in the greatest confusion, and Joseph retired to Vittoria. General Reille had taken up a position in front of Burgos, intending to stay Lord Wellington's further progress. On the 12th, however, the English commander made his appearance, and drove him over the Arlanzon. Joseph instantly gave orders for the castle, which had withstood the captor of Rodrigo and Badajoz, to be blown up. This was accordingly done, and the fortress was shivered to atoms, killing about 400 French soldiers who were defiling under its walls. Joseph's next stand was at Miranda, but Wellington passed round the sources of the Ebro; and while his generals were wondering why their retreat was unmolested, they were disconcerted by the intelligence that the whole of the allies were established on the left bank of the river. This memorable march was four hundred miles long, through one of the most difficult countries ever attempted by an army. The French had considered it impassable, and were thus completely surprised. Reille's advice, in this dilemma, was to march down the Ebro into Navarre; but Joseph, relying

upon being reinforced, and being also unwilling to relinquish his convoys, determined to retreat on Vittoria. Joseph now had no resource but to fight, or, abandoning the greatest accumulation of baggage and plunder that ever accompanied a European army, to flee. He chose the former. The command of his army, though nominally in his own hands, was virtually in those of Marshal Jourdan. It was in infantry 10,000 weaker than the allies, but in cavalry it was much stronger, and he had sixty pieces of cannon more than his opponents. The 20th was spent in manœuvring; but before dawn on the 21st the French were in position, and the English advancing to engage them. The day was beautifully fine, and at nine Sir Rowland Hill commenced an attack with a Spanish brigade, under General Morillo, upon the heights of La Puebla, on which the enemy's left rested. Sir Rowland Hill then passed through the defile, crossed the Zadora, and carried the village of Subijana de Alava, from which none of the oft-repeated efforts of the French could again dislodge him. The fourth and light divisions, forming the right centre under Lord Wellington's own command, then advanced, and, having crossed the Zadora by the bridges of Nunclares and Tres Puentes, formed boldly under the heights on which the enemy's line was posted. By this time Sir Thomas Picton with the third, and the Earl of Dalhousie with the seventh division, had also arrived at Mendoza and crossed. They therefore commenced the attack on the French before them, and after a gallant defence by one or two brigades, the enemy, who had weakened his centre by detachments to the heights, soon gave way. It was over this ground that the Black Prince, five centuries before, had led the chivalry of England to conquest, and his dauntless valour seemed to inspire every Briton present. Never did soldiers behave better. The French attempted to make a stand at the village of Arinez, but Picton's brave fellows drove them from that important post at the point of the bayonet. They once more rallied, on a hill between Ali and Armentia; but they were again put to flight, and driven through Vittoria. In the meantime Graham had been engaging the extreme right, and, having carried the villages of Abechuco and Gamara, which were obstinately defended, and to retake which several attempts were made, intercepted the French retreat by the highway to France. The fugitive army was

therefore compelled to turn aside to the Pamplona road. It was just now sunset, and as long as light lasted the pursuit was kept up so hotly that the routed army saved nothing but one gun and a howitzer. Joseph himself, like his brother on a subsequent occasion, was obliged to abandon his carriage and flee on horseback. The French loss was about 6000 killed and wounded, and 1000 prisoners. The nature of the ground, which did not permit the cavalry to act, favoured them, or their losses would have been greatly augmented. Amongst the spoils were Joseph's sword, Marshal Jourdan's bâton, a set of colours, and 151 brass ordnance, 415 caissons, 14,249 rounds of ammunition, 1,973,400 musket ball-cartridges, 40,688 lbs. of powder, 56 forage and 44 forge waggons. The spoil, of which no account was taken, was of unprecedented value and amount. About five-and-a-half million dollars fell into the hands of the soldiers, who sold them at eight for a guinea; gold, on account of its greater portability, being in great request. A still greater amount of other valuable property was also abandoned by the retreating host, whose flight was so rapid, that Lord Wellington was unable to come up with them again. Leaving garrisons in Pamplona and San Sebastian, which were immediately blockaded by Sir Rowland Hill and Sir Thomas Graham, they retired into France, so that, excepting the army in Catalonia, the invaders had been driven from the Peninsula. Thus, in six weeks, Lord Wellington, with a force barely 100,000 men, had marched 600 miles, passed six great rivers, gained a decisive battle, invested two fortresses, and expelled 120,000 men from Spain. On the 1st of January in this year (1813), he was gazetted to the Colonelcy of the Royal Regiment of Horse Guards, *vice* the Duke of Northumberland, who had resigned; and on the 4th of March was elected a Knight of the Garter. On the 3d of July the Prince Regent despatched him a most flattering autograph letter, in which he said, "You have sent me, among the trophies of your unriyalled fame, the staff of a French marshal, and I send you in return that of England." On the 22d of the same month the Cortes proposed, and the Regency offered him, the fine estate of Soto de Roma in Granada, "in the name of the Spanish nation, and in testimony of its sincere gratitude." We can only mention the dates of the subsequent battles, which speedily led to

peace. On the 1st July, Soult became Napoleon's lieutenant, with power to remove Joseph, if he thought necessary. On the 25th July, San Sebastian was attacked; on the 28th the battle of Sorauren was won; on the 8th August, after three hours' fighting, during which 3000 of the British army fell, San Sebastian was taken. On the 7th of October, Wellington followed Soult across the Bidassoa, and entered France. Bayonne was invested, and the battle of Orthès opened to Beresford the road to Bordeaux. The battle of Toulouse, which terminated Wellington's seventh peninsular campaign, was fought after Napoleon had abdicated. Wellington was named ambassador to the court of France, and reached Paris on the 4th of May. From Paris he proceeded to Madrid, which he reached on the 24th of May, and from which he furnished an able and lucid memorandum of the state of Spain. On the 10th, the Duke of Wellington repaired to the army at Bordeaux, and having superintended the arrangements for the embarkation of those portions of the army recalled from the Continent, he published on the 14th a general order, in which he congratulated his troops on the successful termination of their labours, and thanked them for their admirable conduct. He then embarked for England, and about five o'clock on the morning of the 23d he reached Dover, and landed soon afterwards amidst the plaudits of ten thousand spectators, who insisted on carrying him to the Ship Inn, where he stayed. The Duchess of Wellington and the Countess of Mornington, his Grace's wife and mother, were present on this interesting occasion. The following morning he set out for Portsmouth, where the allied sovereigns were to witness a grand review. We need not say that the enthusiasm with which he was greeted was beyond description. On the 28th he took his seat in the House of Peers for the first time. He was introduced soon after three by the Dukes of Richmond and Beaufort, who were in military uniform, and wore their ducal robes. Being arrived in the body of the house, his Grace made the usual obeisance to the Lord Chancellor, and showed his patent and right of summons. The three Dukes then approached the table, where his Grace's patents as Baron and Viscount, Earl, Marquis, and Duke, were severally read by the clerks. The oaths were next administered to him, and he signed the Test Rolls. He then, accom-

panied by his noble supporters, took his seat on the Dukes' bench, and saluted the House by rising, taking off his hat, and bowing respectfully. The Lord Chancellor then rose, and addressing his Grace in a glowing panegyric, conveyed to him the following resolution:—"That the thanks of this House be given to Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, on his return from his command abroad, for his eminent and unremitting services to his majesty and to the public." His Grace made a suitable reply, and soon afterwards retired. On the 10th of May the Prince Regent had sent to the House of Commons a message, recommending them to grant the Duke such an annuity as might support the high dignity of the title conferred, and prove a lasting memorial of the nation's gratitude and munificence. On the 12th, the Speaker moved that the sum of 10,000*l.* be annually paid out of the consolidated fund for the use of the Duke of Wellington, to be at any time commuted for the sum of 300,000*l.*, to be laid out in the purchase of an estate. At the suggestion of Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Ponsonby, and Mr. Canning, the proposed sum was unanimously increased to 100,000*l.*, making in all half a million granted to his Grace. In the House of Lords the pension was likewise passed *nem. dis.* Suitable pensions were also bestowed upon the Duke's newly-ennobled lieutenants. On the 1st of July his Grace attended at the House of Commons personally to thank them for their bounty. The House presented on this interesting occasion a very brilliant appearance, from the number of members present in uniform or court dresses. The Duke's admission having been resolved upon, and a chair being set for him on the left hand of the bar, towards the middle of the House, his Grace entered, making his obeisances, while all the members rose from their seats. The Speaker then informing him that a chair was set for his repose, he sat down in it for some time, covered, the sergeant standing on his right hand with the mace grounded, and the members resumed their seats. He then rose and made a short speech uncovered, expressive of his gratitude to the House, not only for its liberal grant, but for having sent a deputation of members to congratulate him on his return home. The Speaker having addressed him in return, he withdrew, making the same obeisances as when he entered; and all the members rising as before, he was conducted by the sergeant to the

door of the house. After he was gone, Lord Castlereagh moved that the two speeches be printed, with the votes of the House, which was agreed to *nem. con.* On the 30th, the peace of Paris was concluded. Wellington was at Vienna when the escape of his old enemy from Elba called him to Belgium, to take command of what he himself called the most infamous army in the world, always excepting the 35,000 British who had fought in Spain. The events of the 16th and 18th of June, 1815, are too vast to admit, and too well known to require, insertion here. Wellington had attained the highest possible rewards before the dreadful battle of Waterloo. Paris capitulated to Wellington and Blucher on the 3d of July, 1815. The English field-marshal was appointed to command the allied army of observation; and on the final evacuation of France, November 1, 1818, he returned to England. Another 200,000*l.* was granted by Parliament in 1815. The remainder of his career belongs to civil history. On his return to England he entered Lord Liverpool's cabinet as Master-general of the Ordnance. In 1826 he went to St. Petersburg, on a special embassy. In 1827 the Duke was busily engaged in Parliament—the principal subject which occupied his attention being the granting of aid to the King of Portugal against Spanish aggressions, to assist in opposing which a force of 5000 men was sent over. He was also appointed, with Sir Robert Peel and other leading members of Parliament, one of the Commissioners for Indian affairs. The Duke of York dying on the 5th of January, the Duke of Wellington was appointed, on the 24th, his successor as Commander-in-chief and Colonel of the 1st Grenadier Guards. On the 10th of March he was installed in the office of High Constable of the Tower, with a salary of 1000*l.* per annum. At the same time he was appointed Custos Rotulorum of the Tower Hamlets, with a much greater salary. Lord Liverpool having died on the 17th of February, the king, on the 10th of April, nominated Mr. Canning as his successor. Upon this the Duke of Wellington, and six other of the principal members of the old cabinet, retired, his Grace resigning the command of the army on the 30th. On the 1st of June, Viscount Goderich (afterwards Earl of Ripon) introduced into the Upper House Mr. Canning's new corn-bill. It was opposed by the Duke, whose amend-

ment was carried by a majority of eleven. Mr. Canning died on the 8th of August. He was succeeded by Lord Goderich, whose place as Colonial Secretary was filled by Mr. Huskisson. On the 27th of August the Duke accepted once more the command of the army, but without a seat in the cabinet. Lord Goderich soon resigned office, and the Duke of Wellington was instructed to frame a cabinet. This he accordingly did, resigning the command on the 15th of February in favour of Lord Hill. Mr. Huskisson was soon dismissed from the cabinet; from which his friend Lord Dudley, as well as Mr. Charles Grant, and Lord Palmerston, also seceded. His late Majesty (William IV.) taking offence at a remonstrance made by the Duke of Wellington upon the expensiveness of his habits, also resigned his office as Lord High Admiral. His Grace's mode of life as Prime Minister was such as might have been expected from his previous career. He slept on a mattrass spread on an iron camp-bedstead; rose regularly at seven; breakfasted at eight, and immediately commenced his official duties. He was the terror of the idlers at Downing Street. On one occasion, when the Treasury clerks told him that some mode of making up the accounts was impracticable, they were met with the curt reply, "Never mind, if you can't do it I'll send you half-a-dozen pay-sergeants that will,"—a hint that they did not fail to take. His policy has always been to cling to the old institutions and systems as long as they could safely be maintained, and then to accept the new. Thus he opposed Catholic Emancipation, which he lived to carry. This latter feat reduced the number of his supporters, and he was unable to resist the agitation for a measure of Reform, of which he never could approve. On the 15th November ministers were defeated on Sir Henry Parnell's amendment, appointing a select committee to inquire into the Civil List, and on the following evening the Duke announced in the House of Peers that he had resigned office. The passing of the Reform Bill may be said to have formed the termination of his active political life, although his name is more or less heard in every political crisis. During the late Sir Robert Peel's life he always acted with him, and stood by him on both his two corn-law policies. His acceptance and retention of the command-in-chief under Lord John Russell shows, however, that his first thought is of his sovereign. On the 10th of

April, 1848, when the Chartists were to overturn the empire, the defences of London were entrusted to the Duke, as commander-in chief. He so admirably disposed his troops, that though they were unseen, they would, in the event of an outbreak, have done what much greater forces in Paris failed to effect, till as many lives had been spent as would have decided a great battle. The specials' bâton, however, was happily sufficient. A distinguished member of the Government took upon himself to suggest to the Duke various points that ought to be defended, and the answer he received in every instance was, "Done already," or, "Done three hours since." After the battle of Chillianwallah, in which Lord Gough (who retrieved his fame at Goojerat) was accused of indiscretion and was superseded, the Duke was asked to furnish three names, from which Lord Gough's successor might be chosen. His reply was, "Sir Charles Napier, Sir Charles Napier, Sir Charles Napier." Sir Charles, however, declined the command, upon which his Grace replied, "Very well, then I shall go myself." If space did not fail, it would be easy to adduce many similar illustrations of his promptness and decision. Duty has always been the simple idea with which he has met every difficulty and every danger. In proclamations, orders of the day, and dispatches, he has always avoided the melo-dramatic and ostentatious. Hence, although often opposed to the nation in political views, he is a great favourite with the English people, who like simple words and living, fruitful deeds. To complete this sketch, we subjoin the dates of Wellington's promotions in the army, with his offices and honours. His commission of colonel was conferred on the 3d of May, 1796; that of major-general, 2d of April, 1802; of lieutenant-general, 25th April, 1808; of general in Spain and Portugal, 31st July, 1811; of field-marshal, 21st June, 1813. His titles and offices are perhaps the most exalted and numerous ever conferred upon a single individual. They are — Duke and Viscount Wellington; Baron Douro; Knight of the Garter, and Grand Cross of the Bath; Prince of Waterloo in the Netherlands; Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo, and Grandee of Spain; Duke of Vittoria; Marquis of Torres Vedras; Count Vimeira in Portugal; Knight of the foreign orders of the Guelph of Hanover, St. Andrew of Russia, the Black Eagle of Prussia, the Golden Fleece of Spain, the Elephant of Denmark, St. Ferdinand of

Merit, and St. Januarius of the Two Sicilies, Maximilian-Joseph of Bavaria, Maria-Theresa of Austria, the Sword of Sweden, of William of the Netherlands; Field-marshal in the armies of Austria, Russia, Prussia, Portugal, the Netherlands; Captain-general of Spain; Commander-in-chief; Colonel of Grenadier Guards; Colonel-in-chief of Rifle Brigade: Constable of the Tower and Dover Castle; Warden of the Cinque Ports; Lord-Lieutenant of Hampshire and the Tower Hamlets; Chancellor of the University of Oxford; Master of Trinity House; Vice-President of the Scottish Naval and Military Academy; Governor of King's College; and D.C.L.

WHATELY, RICHARD, ARCHBISHOP OF DUBLIN, an eminent Theologian and Writer on Political Economy, was born in 1789, the son of the Rev. Dr. Whately of Nonsuch Park, Surrey. He was educated at Oxford, in Oriel College, of which, in 1819, he was elected a fellow. The college of Oriel is famous for having sent out some of the greatest thinkers of which Churchmen of the present generation may boast, such as Arnold, Coplestone, Newman (until his perversion), and the subject of this sketch. Whately was appointed to read the Bampton lectures in 1822, in which year he received the rectory of Halesworth in Suffolk, value 450*l.* per annum. In the contest which took place in the University, when Sir R. Peel appealed to his learned constituents upon the Catholic question, Whately voted for the right honourable baronet. In 1830 he was appointed President of St. Alban's Hall and Professor of Political Economy; and in 1831 he was consecrated Archbishop of Dublin and Bishop of Glendalagh. The diocese of Kildare has since been added to his charge. His lordship has published a considerable number of theological writings, consisting of sermons and charges, all marked by a desire to place religion on a simple scriptural basis, and in harmony with man's intellectual nature. His style is remarkably luminous, and his reasoning most severe. In the administration of his office he has displayed a uniform liberality, and has been a constant promoter of the national system of education in Ireland. He is the author of a treatise on political economy, and the best manual of logic which we possess.

WILBERFORCE, SAMUEL, BISHOP OF OXFORD, born in 1805, third son of the celebrated M.P., William Wilberforce. The list of university honours of this bishop are thus noted. He was educated at Oriel College, Oxford; was 2d class Classics and 1st class Mathematics, 1826; M.A. 1829; Bampton Lecturer, 1841; D.D. 1845; admitted *ad eundem gradum*, Cambridge, 1847. His early preferments were,—Rectory of Brightstone; Archdeaconry of Surrey; Rectory of Alverstoke; Canonry of Winchester; Chaplaincy to Prince Albert; Dean of Westminster. He was consecrated Bishop of Oxford in 1845, and is also Chancellor of the Order of the Garter, and Lord High Almoner. Amongst his published works are, "Agathos," "Eucharistica," "Note-Book of a Country Clergyman," "Rocky Island," "Sermons at Oxford," "Sermons before the Queen," "Sermons on Miscellaneous Subjects," &c.

WILLIS, NATHANIEL PARKER, an industrious and "sketchy" American author, was born in Portland, Jan. 20, 1817. While a child he was removed to Boston, and received his first education at the Latin school of that city and the Phillip's Academy at Andover. He entered Yale College in the seventeenth year of his age, and about the same time produced a series of poems on sacred subjects, which obtained for him some reputation. Immediately after he had graduated, in 1827, he was engaged by Mr. Goodrich ("Peter Parley") to edit "The Legendary" and "The Token." In 1828 he established the "American Monthly Magazine," which he conducted two years and a half, when it was merged in the "New York Mirror," and Willis came to Europe. On his arrival in France he was attached to the American Legation by Mr. Rives, then minister at the court of Versailles, and, with a diplomatic passport, he travelled in that country, Italy, Greece, Asia Minor, Turkey, and last of all in England, where he married. The letters he wrote while abroad, under the title of "Pencillings by the Way," were first published in the "New York Mirror." In 1835 he published "Inklings of Adventure," a series of tales, which appeared originally in a London magazine under the signature of "Peter Slingsby." In 1837 he returned to the United States, and retired to a *pleasant* seat on the Susquehanna, where he resided two *years*. Early in 1839 he became one of the editors of the

"Corsair," a literary gazette in New York, and in the autumn of the same year he came again to London, where, in the following winter, he published "Loiterings of Travel," in two volumes, and "Two Ways of Dying for a Husband." In 1840 appeared his "Poems," and "Letters from under a Bridge." About the same time he wrote the descriptive portions of some pictorial works on American scenery and Ireland. In 1843, with Mr. G. P. Morris, he revived the "New York Mirror," which had been discontinued for several years, first as a weekly, then as a daily gazette; but withdrew from it upon the death of his wife in 1844, and made another visit to England, where he published "Dashes at Life with a Free Pencil," consisting of stories and sketches of European and American Society. On his return to New York he issued his complete works, which filled a closely-printed imperial octavo volume of some hundred pages. In October 1846 he married a daughter of the Hon. Mr. Gunnel, and is now settled in New York, where he is associated with Mr. Norris as editor of the "Home Journal," a weekly gazette of literature. Mr. Willis belongs to what has been styled the Venetian school in letters. There is no drawing, but much colouring in his pictures. His stories have little probability, coherence, or consistency; but the abundance of ornamental details scattered over his writings have gained for him considerable popularity in America, and some readers in this country.

WILLS, WILLIAM HENRY, Journalist, born Jan. 13, 1810. Mr. Wills has been for the last twenty years one of that important and talented class of literary men whom the present demand for knowledge keeps in full and profitable occupation; and who—though their names seldom appear on title-pages—are amongst the most prolific of public writers. Mr. Wills was one of the literary "set" who started "Punch;" and was afterwards, for several years, the working editor of "Chambers's Journal." He now occupies a similar position on "Household Words." He was a member of the original staff of "The Daily News," and occupied, for a considerable time, the post of sub-editor of that paper,—to the leading columns of which he has also contributed.

WILSON, JOHN, Poet, Professor, and for years a writer in

"Blackwood's Magazine" (in which last character he is best known under the *nom de plume* of "Christopher North") was born in 1788 at Paisley, where his father carried on a manufacturing business, and attained great wealth. At the age of thirteen he was entered of Glasgow University, and proceeded thence, in his eighteenth year, to Oxford, entering Magdalen College as a gentleman commoner. Here he gained the Newdigate prize for an English poem of sixty lines. On leaving Oxford he bought an estate called Elleroy, on the banks of Lake Windermere, and went there to reside in the society of Wordsworth. In consequence of reverses of fortune he left Windermere and adopted the law as his profession, and was called to the Scottish bar. In 1818 he sought and obtained the professorship of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. About this time he became connected with "Blackwood's Magazine;" and by the number and ability of his contributions, as well as by his influence on other writers, may be said to have created the literary character of that journal. The choicest of his contributions have been collected under the title of "Recreations of Christopher North." Mr. Hallam has characterised Wilson as a writer of the most ardent and enthusiastic genius, whose eloquence is as the rush of mighty waters. His poetical works are "The Isle of Palms," and "City of the Plague," poems deeply conversant with the gentler sympathies of our nature. He has also written three novels, called "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life," "The Trials of Margaret Lyndsay," and "The Foresters."

WINDISCHGRATZ, PRINCE, some time Generalissimo of the Austrian troops, and who has bombarded more civilised capitals than any commander of his time, was born in 1786. Descended on the maternal side from Wallenstein the great Duke of Friedland, proud of his descent, but *borné* in intellect, and possessing little knowledge, he is, even as a soldier, hardly more than a first-rate corporal—a good drill adjutant, and a great hand at frightening a mob. But he nevertheless enjoys considerable popularity among the Austrian officers; principally through his high aristocratical manners in society, which have earned him the title of "The first Austrian Gentleman." It had long been well known that his political opinions were on the side of abso-

lutism: and for many years it had been certain that, if a revolution should come, Windischgrätz would be the general of the absolutist party. The movements of the spring of 1848 took every one so entirely by surprise that none dreamt of offering any resistance to the popular will. But as early as the month of July a remarkable circular was handed round among the troops. It was drawn up by the officers of the Galician army-corps, and expressed in the plainest terms,—"That the army was the real representative of the populations of the monarchy; that the officers were the representatives of the intelligence, the privates the representatives of the strength, of these populations; consequently to them belonged the task of reconstituting the Austrian monarchy. And as the emperor and those immediately about him were evidently not in a state of free action, the Galician corps of officers hereby call upon the other officers of the army to place themselves immediately at the disposal of *that general* whom public opinion has long pointed out as the saviour of his country, in order to rescue the monarch, and crush Vienna, that focus of revolution." The prætorian guards thus gave plain warning of their intentions. The Minister of War at Vienna had no objection to their end,—a deep objection to their plan of carrying it out. If the counter-revolution was to succeed, it must not take the form of a military reaction. A character of national feeling must be given to it; hence Jellachich, in spite of his very meagre military qualifications, must be put at its head; and, instead of directing it against Vienna, Hungary must be made the first point of attack. This would have been all very well, could Jellachich have executed what was expected from him; but he was beaten on every occasion, and it then became necessary to recur to the earlier plans. Windischgrätz took the chief command of the army; bombarded Vienna, as in the month of July he had already bombarded Prague; rejected all overtures on the part of the Hungarians, imprisoned their envoys, and whilst he was recruiting and strengthening his forces for a campaign in their country, amused himself in Vienna from the beginning of November till the middle of December, with holding courts-martial and carrying their sentences of death into execution. At length he took the field, and, with sudden speed, hurried in three weeks from Vienna to Pesth; the Hungarian leaders retreated before

his superior force, and after the battle of Mohr, which was disastrous to them, were compelled to leave Pesth itself to his disposal, and to retire over the Theiss. Windischgrätz was now extolled in every absolutist paper as the greatest of European generals. In an incredibly short time Hungary was to be brought under the yoke; and certainly at that time no one even dreamt that the Hungarians would recover themselves as they did, and so quickly drive the Austrians beyond their frontiers. When, however, this happened, in the month of April, the whole blame was thrown on Windischgrätz. It was especially laid to his charge that he had not marched on Debreczin in the month of January, and, above all, that he had not absolutely prohibited the circulation of the Hungarian bank-notes. He was superseded in his command. The newspapers, the self-same newspapers that had extolled him to the clouds, now trampled him in the dust; and the people, rendered bitterly indignant by his executions in Vienna, Presburg, and Pesth, exulted in the fall of the harsh and blood-stained aristocrat. Not a voice was uplifted in his defence; though all the while it was necessary that the Austrian army should have some considerable time to repose in Pesth; although it had been entirely worn out by the forced marches from Vienna to Pesth, in the dead of winter, and the desperate though unsuccessful resistance of the Hungarians at Senitz, Tyrnau, Parrendorf, Altenburg, Babolna, and Mohr. Moreover, the population of Hungary had risen *en masse* in Windischgrätz's rear, exasperated by his prohibition of the Hungarian notes, by which they suddenly saw themselves deprived of a necessary medium of circulation. Windischgrätz underwent what any one else under the same circumstances must have undergone: he was beaten. Had Windischgrätz conquered, history might have called him a hero. As it is, he will most probably be remembered only as the man who destroyed some of the most flourishing cities of Germany, and who murdered Robert Blum, one of the best speakers in the Frankfort parliament —to say nothing of a parcel of unhappy journalists, whose totally unpractical, confused ideas, really hardly deserved to be chastised with musket-balls. Since the success of the reaction has been guaranteed by the czar, Windischgrätz has been invited to resume his former governorship of Bohemia, a post which he has hitherto had sagacity enough to decline.

With the exception of a few days' fighting in 1814, Windischgrätz's valour had all been expended upon his fellow-citizens.

WISEMAN, CARDINAL, the chief of the Romish Church in England, is by birth a Spaniard, and by descent an Irishman. He was born in 1802. At an early age he was brought to England, and sent for his education to St. Cuthbert's Catholic College, at Ushaw, near Durham. From thence he was removed to the English College at Rome, where he was ordained a priest, and made a Doctor of Divinity. He was a Professor for a time in the Roman University; and then made Rector of the English College at Ushaw. Dr. Wiseman came to England in 1835, and in the winter of that year delivered a series of lectures. He subsequently returned to Rome, and is understood to have been instrumental in inducing Pope Gregory XVI. to increase the Vicars-Apostolic in England. The number was doubled, and Dr. Wiseman came back as coadjutor to Dr. Walsh of the midland district. He was appointed President of St. Mary's College, Oscott. In 1847 he again repaired to Rome on the affairs of the Catholics, and no doubt prepared the way for the subsequent change. It was resolved on in 1848, but delayed by the troubles which then ensued at Rome. The Cardinal's second visit to Rome led to further preferment. He was made Pro-Vicar Apostolic of the London district, in place of Dr. Griffiths, deceased. Subsequently he was appointed coadjutor to Dr. Walsh, translated to London, *cum jure et successiones;* and in 1849, on the death of Dr. Walsh, he became Vicar-Apostolic of the London district. In August he went again to Rome, "not expecting," as he says, "to return," but "delighted to be commissioned to come back," clothed in new dignity. In a Consistory held on the 30th of September, Nicholas Wiseman was elected to the dignity of Cardinal, by the title of Saint Pudentia, and was appointed Archbishop of Westminster. Under the Pope, he is the head of the Roman Catholic Church in England, and a Prince of the Church of Rome. As a Cardinal he has sworn temporal as well as spiritual allegiance to the Pope. Dr. Wiseman is the seventh English Cardinal—if he can be called English, having been born in Spain, and passed the greater part of his life in Rome—

since the Reformation. The other six were, Pole, Allen, Howard, York (a son of the Pretender, who was never in England), Weld, and Acton.

WURTEMBERG, WILLIAM I., KING OF, was born Sept. 27, 1781, at Luben, in Silesia, where his father, afterwards King of Wurtemberg by the name of Frederick I., then kept garrison as major-general in the Prussian service. His mother was the Princess Augusta of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel. His sister was married to Jerome Bonaparte, ex-king of Westphalia. William having long wandered with his parents from Silesia to Russia, then in Germany, in Switzerland, and on the banks of the Rhine, came in 1790 to live in Wurtemberg. His mother died on the day when he completed his seventh year, after which his education was deplorably neglected. In 1796, and again in 1799, he had to abandon the soil of Wurtemberg with his family. In 1800 he went to serve as a volunteer in the Austrian army, under the Archduke John, and was at Hohenlinden. His father had become, in 1797, reigning Duke of Wurtemberg, and still exercising the paternal authority over his son in a most rigorous manner, and to the extent of personal chastisement, the lad fled from home, and finding friends undertook, in 1803, a journey into France and Italy, where the defects of his education were to some extent repaired. In 1806, when his father took the title of King, he returned to Wurtemberg as prince-royal, and lived a most retired life at Stuttgard until 1812. His marriage in 1808 with the Princess Carolina-Augusta of Bavaria wrought no change in his mode of life. This union was dissolved by mutual consent in 1814. When, in 1812, Napoleon invaded Russia, the prince-royal was designated by his father to join him at the head of a corps of 15,000 men. Shortly after his entry on the Russian territories, however, he fell sick, and lay some time at Wilna, returning to Stuttgard upon recovery. After the battle of Leipsic his father was compelled to join the Coalition, and the prince was designated to command one of the divisions of the allied army, consisting of several Wurtemberg, Russian, and Austrian regiments. He took part in the battles of Epinoi, Sens, and Brienne, and at Montereau maintained himself in a critical position against forces five times as numerous as his own; thus giving the allies time to

retrograde in good order. In the campaign of 1815 he was again placed at the head of a considerable *corps d'armée*. At Pans he made the acquaintance of the Grand-Duchess of Russia, Catherine Paulowva, whom he married in 1816, but who died three years afterwards. On the 30th of October, 1816, his father died suddenly. William now came to the throne, and commenced a series of measures which for a time rendered him exceedingly popular. He amnestied several political offenders, introduced economy into the public service, and in 1819 promulgated a constitution. In 1848 he was one of the first monarchs to recognise the justice of the national demands for a reconstitution of Germany, and in various speeches, letters, and proclamations, declared himself a partaker in the general desire for German unity. He accepted the Frankfort constitution, and protested his readiness to sacrifice personal considerations for the sake of gratifying the aspirations of his country. Since the failure of the Frankfort scheme he has pursued an independent course. Shortly after the announcement of the league between Prussia, Hanover, and Saxony, for establishing a separate bund, he denounced it to his parliament in terms so strong as to cause the withdrawal of the Prussian minister from Stuttgard. On the other hand, although acting generally with Austria, he had the courage to remonstrate in the spring of 1851, before all Germany, with Prince Schwarzenberg, upon the contempt of public opinion as an element of government, displayed in the propositions of that minister for reconstructing a central power in Germany, and declared himself warmly for the constitution of a popular Assembly, elected from all the states, to sit at Frankfort beside the Federal Diet.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY G. BARCLAY, CASTLE ST., LEICESTER SQ.